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मखिल भारतीय सेवाएं और भारतीय संघवाद

—बाबूलाल कड़िया

सुचंद माथुर राजकीय लोक प्रशासन संस्थान, जयपुर की त्रैमासिक पत्रिका

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RAMESH K. ARORA, Editor

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प्रशासनिका, हरिश्चन्द्र माथुर राजकीय लोक प्रशासन संस्थान, जयपुर की त्रैमासिक पत्रिका है।

प्रशासनिका का संकेन्द्रण विकासशील देशों की प्रशासनिक प्रक्रियाओं का अध्ययन है।

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S. L. VERMA

A Paradoxical View of Bureaucracy in Socialistic Societies

In this age, almost every developing state has adopted 'socialism' in some sense,¹ but has remained unable to realize it. It is essential, therefore, to study the instrumentalities by and through which they have aspired to visualize their cherished goals of equality, liberty and development. Among those instrumentalities, the conventional bureaucracy occupies a pivotal role. Most of the developing countries of post-war era have declared their faith in socialism, but have either adopted or inherited 'governmental' technologies' (to use Riggs' term) like bureaucracy from totally different ecologies.² With and through this instrumentality, they intend to bring about radical transformation of their traditional societies. Sometime they remain unable to see that even some of the developed countries like Great Britain and other European countries, having absorbed a part of socialism in their national life, have started restructuring their administrative systems to achieve their goals and values in an effective manner. But the problem has not been analyzed in the context of new socialistic societies. The bureaucracy, in these countries, as Almond and Powell have argued, happens to monopolize not only outputs of their political systems, but also articulate and aggregate interests as well as perform communication and adjudication functions at various levels.³

Concept of Role

From a structural point of view, like any other social institution, the bureaucracy is also a 'system of roles'.⁴ Though not so much 'open' like many other systems and sub-systems, it is constituted by men to achieve certain goals and objectives. It is made of attitudes, perceptions, beliefs, interests, motivations, habits and expectations of

human beings. In social systems, for making them more purposive, human variability is reduced and made dependable

- i. around co-ordinated efforts to achieve certain objectives and solve problems;
- ii. through shared values and expectations; and
- iii. by rule-enforcement.

Small communities and voluntary groups are often based upon the first two, while large-scale organizations like bureaucracies employ more or less all the three processes. The latter place greater reliance upon formal prescriptions of acceptable behaviour. They even orient and indoctrinate members with their own systematic norms and values to contrive organizational roles in a proper manner.

Every social system has roles, norms and values. Bureaucracy, as a social system, comprises the role-behaviours of members, the norms prescribing and sanctioning these behaviours, and the values in which the norms are embedded. Functional interdependence of the roles ties the officials together. Normative base lying behind these roles contributes an additional cohesive element. Values enshrined in the objectives of organizations furnish another source for their integration. Therefore, the role of bureaucracy should be explained in the light of its norms and values. Being a part of managerial sub-system of the macro-societal system, it plays its role in controlling, co-ordinating, and directing many other sub-systems of the bureaucratic structure. In order to reduce costs of managing it in terms of men and material, it has to resort more and more to the processes of authority, influence and leadership which are essentially related with norms and values of a social system. Values and norms invest administrative functions and behaviour with a significance and meaning which otherwise they would not possess. Values prevail over the total environment and knit norms together. In this respect, the conventional role of bureaucracy in a socialistic society presents a curious paradox.

Bureaucracy: Concept and Realty

The term 'bureaucracy' has become a word of abuse, but in its neutral sense, it stands for administrative organization or administration. Sometimes it refers to the higher echelons of administrative hierarchy.

As an 'ideal-type' concept, it comes down from Max Weber who evolved it out of his study, "The Protestant Ethics and the Rise of Capitalism." To him, bureaucratization was essentially a process of rationalization going on throughout history.⁷ The legitimacy of the thoroughly legal-rational authority of bureaucracy was based on 'impersonal' rules. He typified it with certain essential features mentioned here in brief :

- (i) A continuous organization of official functions bound by rules.
- (ii) A specified sphere of competence based on a division of labour with authority and sanctions to ensure proper role performance.
- (iii) A hierarchical arrangement of offices in terms of supervision and control.
- (iv) The governing of the conduct of an office by technical rules or by norms and the requiring of specialized training for the incumbents of these offices.
- (v) Complete separation of the property belonging to the organization and the property belonging to the official.
- (vi) The lack of rights in his office by the incumbent. He cannot appropriate his official position in his own interests.
- (vii) Administrative acts, decisions, and roles are formulated and recorded in writing. The combination of written documents and a continuous organization of official functions constitutes the 'office' which is the central focus of all types of modern corporate action.

Alfred Diamant has spelled out the nature of administrative staff appropriate for the ideal-type of authority.⁸ Efficiency and rationality are its goals or norms. The authority issues commands only of a rational character, and the members owe obedience only to the impersonal office and only to the extent of their official activities. Its functional features, as Friedrich says, are 'objectivity', 'discretion', 'precision', and 'consistency'.⁹ The colonial bureaucracy of pre-independent India and of many other countries worked more or less on the same lines. Though the ideal type concept of bureaucracy was constructed by Weber for heuristic purposes, yet the term is applied to almost all types of administrative systems in cross-cultural contexts.¹⁰ Max Weber wrote

independently, but his 'bureaucracy' shares many of its characteristics with two other models of Taylor and Gulick also. They all deal with the internal aspects of organizations and regard them almost a machine with man as an adjunct to it.

Limitations and Contradictions

Ecologically speaking, Friedrich is right when he says that Weber's exposition of bureaucracy vibrates with "something of the Prussian enthusiasm for the military organization."¹¹ Udy also found that certain traits of the Weberian bureaucracy were in consonance with the 'spirit' of contemporary administration.¹² At the end of the nineteenth century, the bureaucracy had a dominating influence on the Prussian state system. It was characterized by hierarchy, specialization and careerism. Weber wanted to check its influence by neutralizing it, and wished it to make it an efficient tool of the state. The goal of rationality meant efficient fulfilment of state's policies. His historical perspective required a stable state system within which industrial development could take place. His concept proved to be an inadequate mechanism to explain the dynamism of rapidly changing administrative systems. The Weberian government was not expected to initiate or lead the process of large scale socio-economic development.¹³

Weber regarded bureaucracy as the "power instrument of the first order"¹⁴ still he could not conceive that the goals given to it for implementation could be displaced by their own. In a way their masters could be made as servants to serve their own interests. Merton Gouldner and many others analyzed these bureaucratic deviations, and have found that many of their essential features have unintended and dysfunctional consequences for the whole system. In this sense Parsons criticized him for his ideal type 'atomism', Human relation movement and many modern organization theories can be regarded as a sharp criticism of the conventional role of bureaucracy.

His concepts of neutrality and balance between politics and administration have also not proved empirically true. Helen Constantine has said that bureaucracy will not remain a value neutral tool but will actually constitute a "ruling class with a monopoly of power".¹⁵ Weber like many other elitists, regarded the higher echelons of administrative hierarchy as elite sharing substantial power. In developing countries according to some social scientists, the bureaucrats are a political force and are modernizers as well.¹⁶ However, it is difficult to generalize that the

form a ruling class.¹⁷ In the present circumstances, professionalization and neutralization have become incompatible concepts.¹⁸ In modernizing societies, owing to their fragmented cultures, administration is no longer neutral. Rather, scholars such as Ralph Braibanti, Ferrel Heady, Milton Esman and others have favoured the role of a 'leading' administrative sub-system for developing countries.¹⁹

The conventional model totally ignores its ecology comprising political, cultural and socio-economic environments. Modern administrative theory accepts the hypothesis that formal institutions are, to a large extent, vehicles of the fundamental values and culture-patterns of the society as a whole.²⁰ The kind of government a people develop is determined largely by the general state of their society, their historical experience, and the interplay of contemporary social forces.²¹ In this respect, it is difficult to maintain the Riggsian contention that governmental technologies can be transmitted cross-culturally and be worked well. Particularly, in the third world, the formal institutions are very much influenced by their informal societal environment. The formal organization is a part of the total organizational structure. Administration is not merely a tool, a machine or a monolith. It influences and is influenced by society.²² In developing socialistic societies of the third world, the government is the principal vehicle to meet "the revolution of the rising expectations" and also of the growing frustrations.

Even if one maintains that the officials of conventional bureaucracy owe their allegiance to impersonal laws and will implement them in an efficient manner, it may be suggested that this notion of 'legality' or 'instrumentality' is very dangerous as it is not placed under a higher law or morality. Weber himself acknowledged the 'fragility' of such legal-rational type of bureaucracy, and proposed to mix charismatic leadership at the top with it to sustain democracy.²³ However, the consequences of such charismatic leadership in the personality of Hitler and many others equipped with the Weberian type of authority are already well known. As such, social values and norms should be clearly enshrined in place of abstract instrumentality of law. Social values and norms pervade a socialistic society, including political leadership, hence they must find place in any scheme of organization of a legal-rational authority. The essential features of a socialistic bureaucracy should have been different from that of a conventional bureaucracy.

A formal organization tries to acquire only a segment of its members personalities. For the remaining segments of their personalities, unless there is some contrivance to harmonise the organizational goals with the societal goals, the norms underlying their organizational roles cannot be accepted in an effective way. Conflicts will occur between the society and the organization, and the organization and the fragmented individual. The values and norms internalized through socialization processes tend to intervene the operations of bureaucracy in various manners. Their areas of discretion, authority, influence, motivation etc. would be taken over by them. Hence, the organization requires larger base of legitimation than mere 'legality'. Only the incorporation of socialistic values and relevant norms can make administrative processes like authority, influence, communication etc. efficient and effective in the real sense. In that way, it can be hoped that conflicts²⁴ between the political system and the bureaucracy would be lessened, 'bureaupathological' occurrences made ineffective, and costs of administration considerably reduced.

The conventional bureaucracy may be good in terms of survival and efficiency for a society passing through the end of nineteenth century with a closed system, limited organizational roles, and static sense of legitimacy.²⁵ However, in the present form, as it has come down to us, it tends to become elitistic in outlook and lays great waste of human potential for innovation and creativity.²⁶ It is burden some to the members who spend their lives without caring much either for the system and for the goals towards which it is directed. Often it fails in actual terms of efficiency, economy and effectiveness.

Pattern of a Socialistic Society

In a socialistic non-communist society, democratically evolved social values, norms and goals are felt, accepted and understood well by its overall majority. Such pattern of broad socialism has been adopted and successfully maintained by many Anglo-European countries including India and Israel. It has been accepted as the only way to enlarge freedom and achieve a democracy in fuller sense. However, it stands against bureaucratic concentration of power and the abuses of oligopoly.²⁷ It stands in favour of a more equitable distribution of the national income and believes that such relative equality can be obtained progressively through democratic methods. It is the task of socialism to create institutions which make democracy a living reality.

As Norman Thomas put, "socialism itself is the fulfilment of democracy."²⁸

It is a society which is not ruled by a particular section, ideology or party.²⁹ Its aim is to strengthen equality through democratic processes including planning in order to achieve maximum liberty for all. But it is not a classless and stateless society wherein administration of men is supposedly to be taken over by administration of things. In such communities where one political party dominates the whole society on the basis of achieving some future goals, both society and government lose their identities. In such societies, as Max Weber already in 1906, there is the possibility of the concentration of all powers and activities in the hands of the state and its centralized bureaucracy. He even warned a nation against the belief that the conduct of state affairs is a matter of mere 'administration'. The scope and content of activities of the government of a socialistic society is a matter to be decided by its people in a free manner. As discussed later, for achieving its developmental goals, a society may have a balanced or unbalanced polity¹. In a developing socialistic country, the role of bureaucracy is often expansive, and moves toward 'governmentalization' of society, with a view to fuller utilization of its scarce means and resources through planning. As such, in addition to the Weberian typology, legitimation on the basis of societal values and goals may be regarded a new and fourth type of authority which requires its own kind of administrative staff and structures.

Role of Bureaucracy in a Socialistic Society

The Weberian model fails to provide any sort of guidance for the expanding role of bureaucracies in developing and socialistic countries. Expectations associated with their role run high in the transitional societies. Hence, their role becomes important till the polity itself matures.³² Apart from imbibing socialistic goals and values, it is made representative of the societal elements and moved towards its widening role. The element of representativeness in bureaucracy directs its power to conform to social goals. Even developed nations like Great Britain have been making efforts to transform their laissez-faire bureaucracies into welfare bureaucracies.³³ Some of the nations of the third world are following in their footsteps. The Administrative Reforms Commission in India has also sought a totally reformed administration to meet new challenges to the Indian polity.³⁴ As a result of socialistic perspective, administration spreads over from governmental levels to

societal levels, wherein the bureaucracy from top management to the rank and file becomes a part and parcel of the whole societal system. It operates within the social value system which legitimizes the organizational goals. Parsons, in his sociological approach, removed this defect abounding in the Weberian analysis.³⁵ While Weber stopped at the administrative state, Riggs did not go much beyond diffracted industrial societies as his value frame. However, the expanding role of bureaucracy in the transitional societies³⁶ requires that a socialistic pattern of bureaucracy is evolved forthwith. For this purpose, piecemeal reformation at lower levels may not be of much avail, hence, re-organisation remains the only remedy.

Reorganization of the Bureaucratic Structure

An administrative system requires the pattern of staff in accordance with the legitimation of its authority, failing which major inconsistencies and contradictions at various levels remain. Acceptance of social values and norms provide new type of legitimization of authority and the pattern of administrative staff in consonance with it. In place of charismatic leadership some democratic authority has to set the primary goals as the controlling norms for the administration. Apart from the officials directly concerned with implementation, the community has to participate at various levels of decision-making processes. There would be greater decentralization of decision-making power so as to bring administration closer to the people. System of rewards would be based on actual performance and appreciation of the clientele. Representativeness of the bureaucracy would also be a dominating feature.

In a socialistic society, owing to the similarity of value-patterns of the administration and the people, it is hoped that the socialization processes at large, would reduce the cost of administration in terms of men and material. In place of stability and order, values like liberty, equality, welfare, and development would become cherished goals of the new bureaucracy. The gap between administration and society would be narrowed down. When seen in a wider perspective,³⁷ it becomes clear that we should now go much ahead of Weber and his classification of bureaucracies. What we require is an 'interactional model' or a kind of natural system model³⁸ in which the people, government and the societal values make up the three arms of the administrative triangle.

As a growing bureaucracy in a socialistic society consists of many sub-systems and structures, it requires that its integration process

is based upon common norms and role-interdependence. For making the participants obey, the organisation can rely on its power only to a limited extent. Obviously, the sole reliance on power alienates the members of the system. When its operations conform to their value-patterns, compliance become deeper and more effective. In the last resort, this conformation is the ultimate basis of legitimation. It provides the cognitive maps and moral justification relevant to the realisation of the goals of administration.

A PARADIGM FOR SOCIALISTIC PATTERN OF ADMINISTRATION

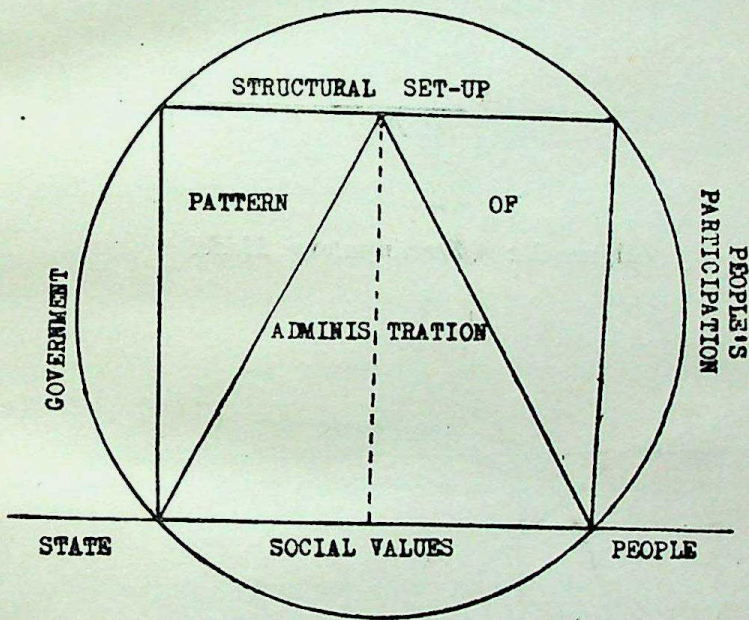


Figure 1 : A Balanced Model

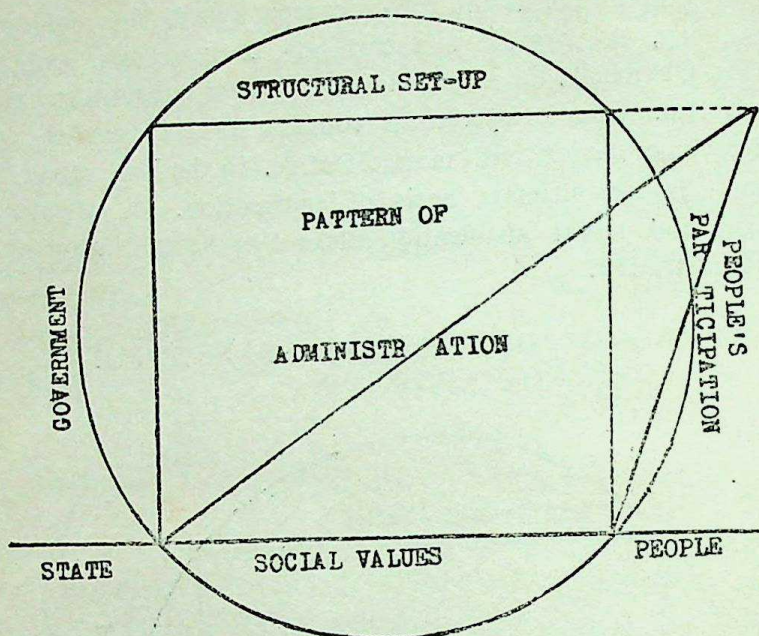


Figure 2 : A Participatory Model

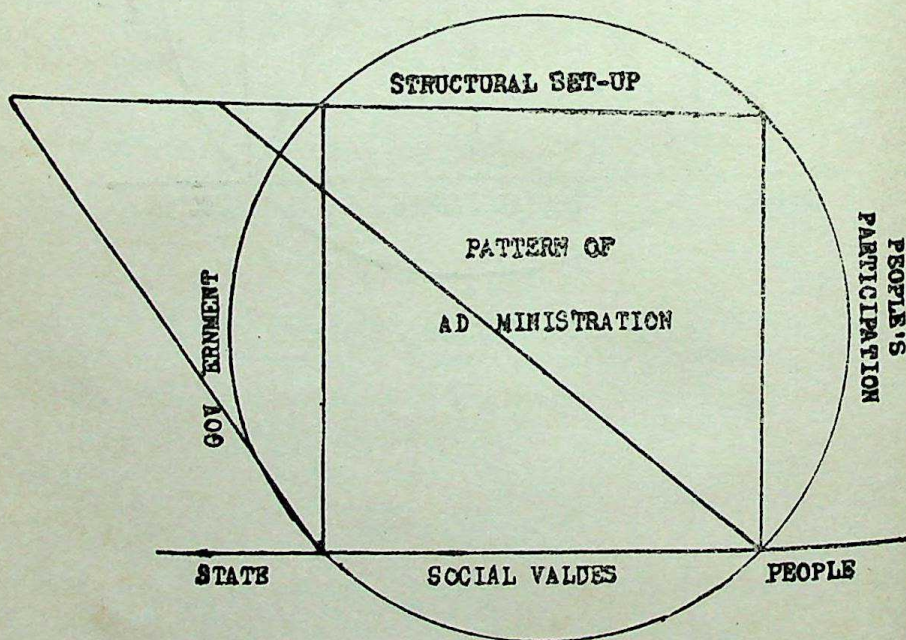


Figure 3 : A Bureaucratic Model

However, for the purpose of analysing modern administrative systems, a classification scheme can be presented here on the basis of a socialistic syndrome. It should be a dynamic analytical mechanism. As such, it consists of state, people and administration on the basis of societal values. Within the given political system, the syndrome works out three different patterns of structural set-up of administrative systems. A paradigm has been developed to stress characteristic features of each pattern. The first pattern (figure-1) presents the roles of government and people in a balanced or proportionate manner. It may be called a 'balanced model'. When the people's arm dominates the administrative structure and operates in an effective and direct manner, the model becomes 'participatory' (figure-2). Similarly, if the government or the ruling party regards itself enthusiastically responsible to actualize societal goals and values, the administrative pattern becomes a 'bureaucratic model' (figure-3). Perhaps it would be useful to point out that all the administrative systems cannot be conceptualized within these categories, and almost every administrative system bears many of the traits of these models at various levels and segments of their social systems. Most of the western political systems along with their administrative patterns may come under the 'balanced-model'. The bureaucracies of the Marxian one-party system and of some developing socialist countries may join the 'governmentalized or bureaucratic model'. Socialistic and liberal democracies—direct and indirect—and decentralized political structures at the local levels can be put under the 'participatory paradigm'. In each case, as Sjoberg has suggested, the paradigm keeps the focus in view that in what way the bureaucracy maintains, integrates and manages the peaceful changes for the social system.

It has been maintained rightly that the bureaucracy is a powerful instrument of the first order. As such, it can overpower the system itself. The social system and the political ideology cannot regard it as neutral. Therefore, its taskmasters do make use of its power and play societal politics with the bureaucracy convert, change and cajole it to their own terms. Weber left his concept of bureaucracy as untested, and could not go deep into its dysfunctional aspects.

Problems and Conclusions

It does not mean that the socialistic model of bureaucracy would be totally new, or would have no problems. It would incorporate some of the structural features of Weberian bureaucracy, such as,

specialization, competence, accountability etc. But it is not an absolutely neutral and hierarchical tool. Its shape or size does not conform to that of a pyramid. It rather likens to that of a rectangle or a football put on a reversed bell.³⁹ The structure and the behaviour of the societal bureaucracy does reflect the values and norms prevailing in the polity and society. Its personnel, from top management to the rank and file is imbued with a feeling of dedication to the societal goals and values. The bureaupathological malfunctioning would be obviated by popular participation. Actually, the higher we reach the Maslowian hierarchy of basic human needs,⁴⁰ the more would we require to pay regard to the value premises of a socialistic society. Tensions may remain between generalists and the specialists, formal and informal organizations, administrative and political systems etc., but they would be contained within the general value system of the society.

The socialistic pattern of administration includes the formal structure, the interpersonal relationships within it, and the impact of the surrounding milieu.⁴¹ The distinction between administration and politics or policy is a matter of degree. It abandons the concept of neutrality, as it is one of the source through which bureaucracy gains power. Parsons says that organization is mobilization of power, and it should be legitimized by the value-system.⁴² As such, it should be effectively controlled and directed by the social system. Otherwise, there is every likelihood that the conventional bureaucracy in a socialistic society would continue to operate in a paradoxical manner.

In the end, it can be said that Weber provided no solution to the problems relating to the bureaucracy operating in a developing socialistic society. His ideal-type of bureaucracy could become either a tool in the hands of a charismatic leader like Hitler or dominate the political system itself. It has been pre-defined by him teleologically, and the basis of its legitimacy is merely an instrumental legality which cannot fulfil the functional role of modernization and development. With the advent of mass societies, democracy and socialism, its very basis has become subject to challenge. It may neither be obeyed nor allowed to play its conventional role unless it abides by prevailing societal values at all levels.

NOTES

1. Here the author proposes to refer to non-communist socialist countries. To emphasize this aspect the term 'socialistic' has been used.
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3. Gabriel A. Almond and G. Bingham Powell, **Comparative Politics : A Developmental Approach** (New Delhi : Amerind Publishing Co., 1972), pp. 149-58.
4. Daniel Katz and Robert L. Kahn, **The Social Psychology of Organisations** (New York : John Wiley & Sons, 1966), p. 172.
5. 'Roles' describe specific forms of behaviour associated with the given tasks. 'Norms' may be explicit in many forms, such as, laws and regulations, and enforced by legitimate formal sanctions. 'Values' are the more generalized ideological justifications by which a person or group selects or rejects goals, means, procedures, norms etc. These roles, norms and values differ with respect to degree of abstractness, generality, and applications. But in the integration process of an organization or bureaucracy, all the three are required to work together in an interrelated manner.
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and Development in India (Bombay : Lalvani Publishing House, 1972), pp. 44-45.

22. Bhalerao, "Introduction," *op. cit.*
23. Diamant, *op.cit.*, p. 85.
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G B. K. HOOJA

The Crisis of Indian Police

Consequent upon the communal and caste riots witnessed recently a thinking is being developed that police force must have communal/caste representation. On the face of it, this may appear to be an easy, facile solution but it should not be forgotten that the long-term consequences of such a policy can be suicidal. It must be appreciated that in a democratic society, there are no permanent minorities. What is necessary, is to develop a national outlook and encourage the minorities to come into the national mainstream so far as their civic rights and social duties are involved. The police force, even as other governmental agencies, should be trained to develop a national outlook and social conscience so that they carry out their task in the spirit of true public servants regardless of considerations of caste, colour, creed or community. To inject the virus of communal representation in police administration will be worse than the disease. The problem of police administration in a democratic society is not merely a matter of obtaining a few more jobs for one community or the other or recruiting men who belong to a particular caste or community but its efficiency would rest upon inculcation of the cherished values of a secular society. This is, in fact, a continuous process and has inevitably to take into consideration the dynamics of the growth of a plural society such as ours.

After the attainment of independence, there was a tendency to emphasize the developmental role of the government in preference to the law and order administration. But over the years, a balance between the two roles appears to have been established. It is now generally appreciated that the maintenance of law and order forms the basis of not only the full functioning of the democratic system but it is also being increasingly realised that no development is possible without order in the society. At the same time, it is obvious that the police force must undergo a rapid transformation so as to function more as a

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service agency than a mere vehicle of coercion. Hence the importance of a re-enunciation of police philosophy and a programme of modernization of the police agency so as to increase its effectivity.

Due to the colonial hang-over, the policeman is even now regarded as a person belonging to the other side of the fence. A judge of the High Court is reported to have remarked that "there is not a single lawless group in the whole of the country whose record of crime comes anywhere near the record of that organized unit, which is known as the Indian police." On the other hand, it is to the credit of the the police force that hundreds of policemen have laid down their lives in fighting against dacoits and outlaws. With the advent of democracy, it was expected that there would be an identity of interests between the police and the citizens, but this has not happened, primarily for the reason that in India, self-discipline which is the basis of a democratic state is honoured more in the breach than in observance. Disgruntled and ambitious leaders feel not the slightest hesitation in taking public issues to the streets. This inevitably brings the police as the custodian of public order into confrontation with them. Being a disciplined force, the police is bound to carry out the intentions of the government of the day. In the process, some policemen tend to become more royal than the king and transgress the bounds of propriety and sometimes even law.

This raises the question of the relationship of police and society in general. While the policeman on his part is expected to show due consideration to the fundamental freedoms enshrined in the Constitution, the society and the political masters have to grant the policeman the dignity and status which belongs to him by virtue of his office and not use him as a collaborator for short-sighted personal ends. This, in turn, calls for comprehensive programmes of mutual education and police-community relationship, and also for institutional reforms such as the establishment of area committees to assist and co-operate with police authorities in matters relating to law and order, traffic control, eradication of goonda menace, protection of women and the weaker sections of society, economic offences, etc. In an ideal community the beat policeman should be as well-known to the citizens as the beat postman. This may be yet a Utopian dream, but it would be necessary to establish this relationship if the hiatus between the society and the police agency has to be removed.

This will, to an extent, compensate for the inadequacies of the police force in as much as periodical mutual gatherings of representatives of public and the police may be expected to lead to a free and frank discussion of the common problems agitating them. The police may expect increased co-operation from the public if they maintain continuous social contact and ensure that a person who comes to the aid of the police is not made to look like the accused. It has been well-said that a policeman is a citizen in uniform and a citizen is a policeman without uniform, but the rules and procedures in vogue at present dissuade a citizen from playing his due role in this game. He may be willing to help the police in investigation and apprehension of the criminal, but would rather keep away than get enmeshed in the police net. This is a sad commentary on the state of affairs but nevertheless true.

To quote Professor O. W. Silson: "All members of the force must recognise that the people, through their representatives, hire and pay the police and that as in any other employment there must exist employer-employee relationship. The police must understand that the essence of a correct police attitude is a willingness to serve but at the same time they should distinguish between service and servility, between courtesy and softness. They may be firm but also courteous, avoiding even the appearance of rudeness." Such an approach alone will give the police a new look and transform the ruler's police into people's police. Then it will become more of a "service" than a "force."

In this context, we may also refer to the controversy regarding magisterial restraint on police.

Often, when police is blamed for inefficiency or inaction, magisterial restraint is trotted out as an alibi. The protagonists of this school plead for the removal of magisterial supervision. Obviously, they fail to see the contradiction and danger inherent in this argument. Under the British regime, as a matter of principle, the police was generally supervised by the magistrate, because it was felt that the coercive power of the state should not be exercised without the consent of the civil authority and police should not be free to use its authority without magisterial sanction. It would reverse the concept of the supremacy of civil authority if police is allowed an uninhibited use of its coercive power. Law and order is too complex a subject to be left to the police alone, particularly in these days when police (and even magistracy) is liable to be subject to many pressures, political, economic or social. At the district level, the District Magistrate and the Superintendent of Police

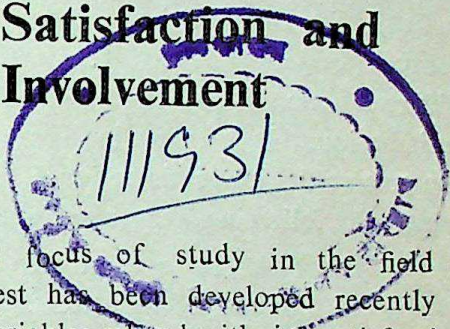
can certainly make an effective law and order team provided there is a sense of common responsibility developed by mature thinking. In the old days, the District Magistrate, the Superintendent of Police and the District Judge met once in a quarter informally at the latter's place to iron out difficulties relating to the maintenance of the law and order. This "colonial" convention seems to have been consigned to the limbo of oblivion. Resumption of this practice should mitigate inter-service rivalry which does incalculable harm not only to the administrative apparatus but is also detrimental to the interests of the common citizen.

To this trio may be added the Chairman, Bar Association who may be expected to represent the interests of the litigants.

In the last analysis, however, the success of such measures would depend on the integrity and self-restraint of the all-too-powerful political leaders who should be called upon to draw the "Laxman Rekha" and not transgress it in the best interest of public peace and morality.

ASHA NAHTA

Relationship between Job Satisfaction and Job Involvement



Job satisfaction today is a vital focus of study in the field of organization. Considerable interest has been developed recently in identifying and describing the variables related with job satisfaction. Investigations in this field indicate that job satisfaction is necessary for better occupational and personal adjustment of the workers. The relationship of job satisfaction with many personal and organizational characteristics such as age, education, sex, occupational level, organizational climate, adjustment and leadership¹ has been explored by various researchers. But very few have studied the relationship between job satisfaction and job involvement.

Lodahl and Kejner² correlated their measure of job involvement with job satisfaction as measured by job description index. For a sample of engineers, high job involvement was associated with four of five variables, i. e., satisfaction with the work itself, promotion, people and supervision, at the .01 level. Weissenberg and Gruenfeld³ attempted to clarify the relationship between job satisfaction by applying dichotomization of motivation and hygiene variables. Results confirmed their hypothesis that involvement increases with increasing satisfaction of motivator variables.

Schuler⁴ also found a positive relation between job satisfaction and job involvement. Hall, Schneider and Nygren⁵ analyzed a sample of 141 professional foresters in terms of their job involvement and higher order need satisfaction. Results found that job involvement was significantly related to satisfaction of autonomy and self-fulfilment needs only, and not to satisfaction of security, social or esteem needs. On the basis of the above studies, it would logically stand to reason

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that satisfaction and high job involvement relate to each other. But these studies are limited in scope and affords a tentative conclusion. In order to obtain further evidence further research work is needed.

In addition, it will also be valuable to investigate those factors which produce greater job satisfaction/dissatisfaction in the groups. It is likely that persons occupying different jobs may differ in their sources of job satisfaction. Some studies have shown that people in different occupations and industries differ in their experience of job satisfaction. It is generally found that the higher the level of the job, the greater the job satisfaction.⁶ Thus for the purpose of the present paper, the following hypotheses were set up :

- (i) If there is a greater job satisfaction, then there will be greater job involvement.
- (ii) The extent of relationship between job involvement and specific factors of job satisfaction varies from factor to factor.
- (iii) There is likelihood of differences between lecturers and engineers with regard to specific sources of job satisfaction.

Methodology

Sample

The present sample consists of 100 subjects of which 50 were engineers, employed in middle scale industries and 50 were lecturers employed in Rajasthan University. All the subjects were permanent employees. Persons who extended their co-operation for the investigation constituted the sample for the study.

Tools for Data Collection

Job satisfaction scale of Campbell and Fiske⁷ was used to measure the job satisfaction of the subjects. This scale consists of 41 items. These items are distributed in five categories related to growth, pay, fringe benefits, relationship with boss and peers. To measure job involvement of the subjects, a scale of job involvement prepared by Lodhal and Kejner⁸ was used. This scale consists of 20 items.

Procedure

A questionnaire was administered to each individual personally. One copy each of two questionnaires was given to each subject and he was asked to fill up the same, as per instructions given

on it. It was made clear to the subjects that their responses will be kept strictly confidential. Completed questionnaire forms were collected. The obtained data were then statistically analyzed and mean, standard deviation, test and correlations were computed to test the various hypotheses set in the present study.

Results

To test the first hypotheses that if there is a greater job satisfaction there will be greater job involvement, correlations were computed in two different types of occupational groups, and obtained results have been summarized in the following table :

TABLE-1

Correlation between Job Satisfaction (Js) and Job Involvement (JI) at Engineers and Lecturers Levels

Occupations	Variables	N	r Values	P Value
Engineers	Js & JI	50	.60	.01
Lecturers	Js & JI	50	.56	.01

As illustrated by the results in above table, the correlations were in expected direction and highly significant. The r values are different in engineers and lecturers group—it is .60 at engineers level and .56 at lecturer level. They are significant at .01 level. The results show that greater the satisfaction, greater the job involvement.

Results of table 2 indicate that job involvement is highly correlated with growth category and moderately correlated with the factors related with respect from peers and superiors at engineers as well as lecturers level.

TABLE-2

**Correlation between Job Involvement and Specific Factors
of Job Satisfaction**

Factors	r Values at Engineers Level	P Values	r Values at Lecturers Level	P Values
Pay	.23		.20	
Fringe benefits	.26		.24	
Respect from superiors	.59	.01	.46	.01
Respect from peers	.56	.01	.52	.01
Growth	.68	.01	.60	.01

Furthermore, data were analyzed to investigate the differences between engineers and lecturers in their job satisfaction scores with regard to specific factors/categories. The results are shown in the following table :

TABLE-3

**Differences between Engineers and Lecturers in their Mean
Scores of Job Satisfaction in Specific Categories**

Categories	Mean Scores of Engineers	SD	Mean Scores of Lecturers	SD	t Values	P Values
Pay	31.00	3.50	30.10	3.00	1.38	ns
Fringe benefits	24.40	2.55	23.80	2.45	1.20	ns
Respect from peers	30.00	4.85	26.40	4.92	3.71	.01
Respect from superiors	31.60	4.50	24.40	4.82	4.51	.01
Growth	48.00	6.50	40.00	5.80	6.45	.01

Table 3 shows that engineers experienced significantly high job satisfaction than lecturers in the categories related with growth ($t = 6.45$), respect from superiors ($t = 4.51$) and respect from peers ($t = 3.71$). The differences between these groups are not significant in the areas related with pay and fringe benefits.

Discussion

The findings, shown in table 1, suggest that job satisfaction is positively related with job involvement. It indicates that satisfaction with the job influences/determines individual involvement in the job. Generally, the individual has a set of hopes or expectations about his job and the organization at entry. He expects that his job or work must provide some opportunities to satisfy his expectations. It is believed that more the opportunity provided by the work environment to satisfy needs, demands or expectations, more ego involved performance results. The failure of an employee to gain important job/personnel satisfaction in direct proportion to the degree that he worked efficiently affects his involvement in the job negatively. In such conditions individual develops negative attitude towards superiors, organizational policies and towards the work itself. He becomes highly frustrated, dissatisfied and then responds to dissatisfaction by being absent from work relatively, frequently or by resigning from the job at the first opportunity. Thus, it appears that job involvement, an important factor in organizational effectiveness, is influenced by job satisfaction.

Further analysis of the results, shown in table 2, indicates that job involvement is closely related to growth need than to pay or fringe benefits (related with existence need). The relationship of job involvement with factors, like respect from superiors and peers is moderate. Responsibility, recognition, challenges, sense of fruitfulness or self-actualization, opportunity of advancement in any job undoubtedly increase the scope or status of one's position. The more effective he becomes, the more successful his department or organization or company becomes and the more satisfaction he can attain from this accomplishment. This will ultimately lead to more involvement in the job.

The findings of table 3 suggest that there is a significant difference between engineers and lecturers in regard to the factors related with growth, respect from superiors and respect from peers.

Engineers have reported greater satisfaction in these categories. It suggests that social recognition, prestige, extra financial gains, opportunities of promotion/advancement are greater in the engineering profession than the teaching profession. The difference between the engineers and lecturers are not significant in regard to the satisfaction scores in the categories related with pay and fringe benefits. It appears that these jobs are white collar jobs and somewhat similar in many respects, such as pay scales and fringe benefits. Therefore, probably this factor causes some or similar amount of satisfaction or dissatisfaction among these groups.

Thus, on the basis of above findings, it may be concluded that job satisfaction appears to be positively related to job involvement. Job involvement is more closely related to the satisfaction of growth needs. The differences between the groups in their satisfaction scores was greater in the factors related to growth, respect from superiors and peers.

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K. R. SHARMA

Small Scale Industries in Rajasthan : A Study of Regional and Area Oriented Economic Problems

Small scale industries have received increasingly greater attention in India since independence, initially under the Gandhian economic approach and later under the Mahalanobis strategy of industrial planning. These were recognised as a core sector in view of their potential for providing employment to more persons, creating entrepreneurial climate, increasing supply of items of mass consumption with minimum utilization of scarce input like capital, higher technical skills and sophisticated management and decentralizing economic power in the industrial sector.

An enquiry was undertaken by the author to understand the role and problems of growth of these industries and to find out how far industrial strategy is influenced by special problems of different regions. The industrial complex at Kota in Rajasthan which has shown good potential for development of large as well as small scale industries, was selected for an in-depth study. The enquiry covered the industries which come under the purview of the Development Commissioner of Small Scale Industries. In 1975, units with investment in plant and machinery upto Rs 7.50 lakhs were classified as "small." The ceiling on investment in the case of ancillary industries was Rs. 10 lakhs.

The Setting

Rajasthan is economically a backward State. It has vast land area but major part of the terrain is arid, the soils are less fertile,

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the rainfall is scanty and uncertain and the climatic conditions are somewhat harsh. Population is sparse and primarily rural. Literacy is low. It has a rich base of mineral resources and large live-stock population but the growth of forests is limited and the quality is poor. Agriculture is backward and dependent upon monsoons. Transport and communication facilities are inadequate and unevenly distributed. Thus, the region exhibits typical features associated with backward regions like poor resource base, undeveloped infra-structural facilities, abundance of manpower, lack of technical skills, dependence on agriculture and primary sector with sprinkling of cottage and small scale industries. The geophysical conditions and the resource base do not provide an ideal setting for rapid economic growth.

The planning for industrial development in the State has mainly emphasized upon development of infrastructural facilities. The share of industrial sector in the total plan expenditure has been small. Investment in industry by the Central and the State Governments and the financial institutions has also been small. Thus, the economy has not experienced material change, contribution of primary sector to the State income is predominant and the benefits of industrialization have not spread out to all the regions. Small scale industries predominate the industrial structure but their contribution in gross input, gross output, value added by manufacture and productive capital have remained small. The growth of these industries in different regions is uneven and the majority of them are located in urban areas and district towns.

The Service Institutions

Though the development of small scale industries is the responsibility of State governments, in view of their importance in country's economy and massive assistance and support needed, the Government of India has taken active interest in the programme. Thus, among the institutions of Central Government, the Small Industries Service Institute (SISI) at Jaipur and its extension centres at Jodhpur, Udaipur and Kota, provide industrial training, consultancy and extension service. The Small Industries Extension Training Institute (SIETI) at Hyderabad imparts training and undertakes research for improving the

extension service. The National Small Industries Corporation (NSIC) assists in government stores purchase programme, supplies machinery on hire purchase basis, distributes certain categories of raw materials, helps in marketing and runs the proto-type production-cum-training centres. Among the State institutions, the Rajasthan Small Industries Corporation (RSIC) distributes essential raw materials, manages five industrial units, runs handicrafts sale emporias, undertakes export of handicrafts, and assists small scale units in marketing and supplies of indigenous machinery to technically qualified entrepreneurs on hire purchase basis. The Rajasthan State Industrial Investment Corporation (RIICO) undertakes the development of industrial areas and estates, constructs factory sheds and promotes industrial projects in joint sector. The Rajasthan Financial Corporation (RFC) provides long term and medium term loans, underwrites issues of shares and debentures and gives deferred payment guarantees. The Rajasthan Agro-Industries Corporation (RAIC), besides engaging in services pertaining to land leveling and tractor hiring, runs the Agricultural Implements Factory at Jaipur and imparts training and assists technically qualified persons in setting up agro-service centres in rural areas. Thus, the public sector service institutions play an important role in the development of the small scale industries in the State. Their activities cover a wide spectrum, from identification of projects to the marketing of products. Their promotional activities have helped not only the established and reputed entrepreneurs but also several new units—units set up by new entrepreneurs and unemployed engineers and those set up in backward areas. But their working suffers due to the lack of suitable technical and managerial personnel and resources and also from lack of coordination and overlapping in their functions.

State Assistance Programme

In keeping with the objectives set out in the Industrial Policy Resolutions, assistance is provided to the small scale industries. Financial assistance is provided by the State Government under the Rajasthan State Aid to Industries Act, and by the RFC, under its various schemes. The RIICO provides equity capital to technically qualified entrepreneurs. The NSIC and the RSIC supply machinery on hire purchase. The SBI, its subsidiary banks, and other commercial banks provide short term credit on liberal terms. Risk coverage is provided to

these institutions by the RBI under the Government of India scheme, the NSIC under the GSP programme and the State Government. Allotment of raw materials is done by the Directorate of Industries out of the quantity made available by the CSIO and its distribution is done by the RSIC through its raw materials depots. The Directorate of Industries recommends issues of licences for import of raw materials and machinery. Imported raw materials are also supplied by the IRMAC set up by the STC at Bombay, out of shelf against the the import licences. Industrial estates and areas are developed by the State Government and the RIICO and factory plots and built sheds are allotted on rent or hire purchase or outright sale basis. Technical consultancy, training, common service facilities and testing facilities are provided by the SISI, Jaipur, and its extension centres at Jodhpur, Udaipur and Kota and technical wing of the Directorate of Industries, Rajasthan. Assistance in marketing, market intelligence and publicity is provided by the NSIS, the RSIS the SISI, Jaipur, the TDA, the ERIC and the Directorate of Industries. The RSIC, the IRMAC and the ERIC assist in exports. The NSIC and the RSIC assist in the supply of stores to government departments. The ISI, the SISI, Jaipur and the technical wing of the Directorate of Industries assist in quality control and standardisation. The Central Government gives subsidy of 15 percent towards the initial cost of capital equipment to the units set up in the six backward districts in the State. Water and electricity is supplied at concessional rates. Relief is given in sales tax and octroi charged on raw materials, machines and other equipments. Stamp duty is charged at half the rates on mortgage deeds executed by these units. Central sales tax is allowed to be retained as interest-free loan. The industrial units in the two RCP areas are given loan and subsidy out of the project funds. The RFC, the SBI and its subsidiary banks provide funds on liberalised terms and training is organised for the workers in traditional village industries in these areas by the Directorate of Industries.

The programme has undoubtedly proved useful in augmenting growth of small scale industries in the State. But these units are mainly concentrated in certain regions and urban areas. The growth of different types of industries is not well balanced. There is no machinery for evaluating the benefits flowing from the investment in this core sector of economy. No precise data showing the

cost and benefits of assistance are collected. The programme has become resource-oriented rather than being result-oriented. Functioning of the administrative structure also leaves much to be desired. Personnel in the development organisation lack proper orientation and training. The entrepreneurs show lack of enterprise and hanker after concessions and subsidies. There is clamour for representation on the official bodies for distribution of raw materials and financial assistance.

Kota Survey Findings

A multi-product complex has prospered in Kota due to favourable factors like developed agricultural base, availability of water and power, transport and communication facilities and flow of capital and entrepreneurship. There has been a marked improvement in socio-economic profile of the region. Transport and communication, medical, health and educational facilities, housing and other social services have improved. Bad effects like industrial pollution, congestion and transport bottlenecks, disturbed social and cultural life, are under check.

Infrastructural facilities and growth of large scale industries have contributed to the growth of small scale industries. The engineering and the chemical industries predominated the industrial structure. The agro-industries also formed a sizeable part. Most of these units worked in single shift throughout the year. While the smaller units were set up by the single proprietors, the medium and the large ones were set up in the partnerships. Though pioneering was done by migrants, as the local people had no background of industrial entrepreneurship, sons of the soil were slowly coming forward as traders transferred their investment from trade to industry and craftsmen, skilled workers and mistries set up service units and modernised their traditional industries. Appreciating the advantages due to suitable location and factory accommodation, most of the new units were set up in newly developed industrial areas and even some existing units were shifted.

The fixed capital was raised out of personal resources supplemented with loan from friends and relatives and the working capital was obtained from commercial banks and indigeneous bankers. The

schemes of financial institutions did not benefit the smaller units and the units in backward areas. The loan sanctioning procedure was considered time consuming and procedure oriented. Investment in plant and machinery in majority of these units was much below the upper limit. While the fixed investment could be arranged, somehow they suffered due to the shortage of working capital. Most units had dealings with the banks but not much reliance was placed on the RFC and the State Government for term financing and on the NSIC and the RSIC for supply of machinery.

There was marked preference for machines and motive power. Employment of workers was below the limit fixed for a factory, proportion of skilled workers was higher than the unskilled, no set procedure was followed for recruitment and training, rather skilled workers were recruited directly. Though there was migration between the large and the small scale industries, workers preferred employment in the former due to higher wages and better employment conditions. Absenteeism was not a major factor and the relations between the employers and employees were cordial.

Raw materials which formed the main input were easily available in local market for the agro-based industries, but the units using steel, chemicals etc. suffered due to inadequate and uncertain supplies from the controlled sources. They purchased more than half their requirement in the open market. Utilisation of capacity remained low due to the shortage of working capital and raw materials, limited local demand, competition from well established outside suppliers, shortage of skilled labour, frequent power cuts, credit curbs, transport bottlenecks and taxation.

As these units lacked marketing expertise and financial resources and there were no well established marketing channels—the government agencies and cooperative societies had limited role—they faced difficulties in marketing. Associations of entrepreneurs functioned like political bodies and concentrated mainly on airing grievances rather than providing assistance in publicity and marketing, technical guidance and training, research and common service facilities. The marketing assistance provided by the SISI, Jaipur, the NSIC and the RSIC though useful was inadequate. These units also suffered due to the lack of

standardisation and quality control, good machines, skilled workers and testing facilities.

The entrepreneurs took active part in the management and operation of their units. They functioned as their own managers, technicians, salesmen, and liaison executives. In fact many of their problems arose simply because they were not properly oriented and equipped to deal with these problems. The government rules and regulations, the procedural formalities and delays also disturbed the smooth functioning of units.

Industrial Estates and Areas

Industrial estates and areas, a vital factor in industrial growth and development, have undoubtedly created new industrial complexes and provided much needed accommodation to the small scale units. The objectives were ideal and left enough scope for the government and the entrepreneurs to rise to occasion. It contributed to industrial growth. But enough was not done to maintain the tempo of growth and efficiency. The programme could not be properly spread out over the entire State. The number of estates was too small to have a visible impact on the industrial economy. While the estates located near big cities and industrial centres like Jaipur, Kota, Jodhpur, Alwar, Bharatpur were successful, those in backward and rural areas did not show much progress. Plots and sheds have remained unallotted and unoccupied. Most of these lacked essential infrastructural facilities. The units operated much below the levels of optimum production.

Ancillary Industries

The small scale industries manufacturing parts and components for other industries were provided technical guidance and assistance by the SISI, Jaipur and the Directorate of Industries, Rajasthan. The Sub-Contracting Exchange run by the SISI compiled and disseminated information. Public sector undertakings took special interest and provided encouragement and work. These industries have shown some progress in the production of automobile parts, electrical machinery and equipment, machine tools, radios and electronic equipment, but the growth so far has been slow and halting. Apart from the historical reasons, the growth of these industries has been slow due to the lack of proper linkage with parent units and the lack of systematic efforts, positive encouragement and assistance by the State agencies.

A Plan for Industrial Development

Industrial development is a mighty challenge before the State. The growth effort of last twenty five years has increased production and productive efficiency to some extent but the regional and the sub-regional disparities persisted. Besides the historical reasons associated with the feudal economy, lack of capital and entrepreneurship, wide regional differences in resource base and infrastructural development, lack of a socio-economic base in the far-flung hilly and desert areas and unfavourable socio-cultural atmosphere in the tribal areas have contributed to it a great deal. The following suggestions are offered to solve the various problems of growth highlighted above.

1. Reorganisation and Strengthening of Developmental Agencies

Success of planning and developmental effort depends to a large extent upon a suitable institutional set up and a cadre of well-equipped and oriented technical, managerial and administrative personnel. To project the image of service organizations, persons with proper skills, aptitudes and talents could be recruited from trade, industry and banking and should be given training and orientation. The training facilities available with the SIETI, Hyderabad should be fully utilised. Deputation of administrative service personnel should be done in exceptional circumstances. Only socially oriented persons should be posted in backward and rural areas. Such postings should not be as punishment but on the strength of promotions and rewards.

The spheres of activity of the developmental institutions should be determined afresh for better utilisation of resources and talents. Thus the RSIC should undertake the supply of raw materials, machinery on hire purchase basis and help in marketing, the RIICO should undertake promotion of new industries and development of infrastructural facilities, the RSAIC should develop agro-industries in rural areas, the RFC should provide term finance and the commercial banks should provide working capital. Joint consultative committees should be constituted for coordination in functioning. Besides, adequate funds should be provided to ensure vigorous implementation of the programmes and expansion of activities.

Regional development corporations should be set up for the north-eastern desert region and the southern mountainous region, on the pattern of the corporations set up in Maharashtra for the Konkan, the Western Maharashtra, the Marathawada and the Vidharba regions. These corporations should be entrusted with the task of development of infrastructural facilities with a view to creating favourable climate for industrialisation.

Industry-wise development committees should be set up at State, district and local level. Representatives of small entrepreneurs, developmental corporations, financial institutions and commercial banks should be associated with these bodies. These committees should initiate thinking on developmental problems and expedite action. Industry-wise committees are essential for paying particular attention to the special problems of different industries.

Under the existing set-up, all policy decisions, even on local matters, are taken at State and district levels. As a result thereof, for every facility, concession and even information, the entrepreneurs rush to these places. For efficient and quick decisions, the technical and the administrative personnel should visit industrial centres for on-the-spot study and decisions.

Intensive publicity campaigns should be organised in the areas showing potential for industrialisation, to motivate industrial entrepreneurs. A multi-service "Entrepreneurial Guidance Cell" should be set up at Jaipur in the Directorate of Industries for collection and dissemination of industrial information and guidance about procedural formalities. The District Industries Offices should be equipped with technical personnel and should be linked up with the above cell for efficient service to the entrepreneurs.

Branch offices of the following national level organisations should be set up at Kota and Jaipur to extend the benefits of their programmes to the State:

- (i) The National Small Industries Corporation
- (ii) The Handloom and Handicrafts Exports Development Corporation
- (iii) Director General of Supplies and Disposals

- (iv) Textile Commissioner
- (v) Controller of Exports and Imports
- (vi) The Engineering, Gem, Jewellery and Minerals Exports Promotion Council

2. Industrial Planning

Considering the disparity in resource base and infrastructural development among different regions of the State, the industrial planning should aim at utilisation of local resources to meet the local needs. Suitable resource based industries for different regions to be identified and developed. Accordingly in Jaipur, Kota, Bundi, Ganganagar and Pali districts which are rich in agricultural resources, agro-based industries like cotton ginning and pressing, small sugar mills, oil mills and vanaspati oil mills should be developed. Similarly in Jodhpur, Barmer, Jaisalmer, Churu, Nagaur, Jalore and Bikaner districts, which have large live-stock population, live-stock based industries like hides and skins, tanneries, woollen mills, milk products should be developed. In the southern region consisting of Udaipur, Bhilwara, Banswara, Dungarpur and Chittorgarh districts, which are rich in mineral resources, minerals based industries like mineral smelting, metallic products, soaps, fertilizers, chemicals should be developed. The industrial planning should also consider the demand aspect and consumer goods industries should be developed to meet the present and the potential local demand.

Industrial units of all sizes and types should be encouraged. Scope for large scale industries is limited in the backward regions but taking a long-term view, some such units should be also encouraged. In areas not fully developed for modern industry, initially emphasis should be on traditional industries like carpentry, black smithy, leather tanning, shoe-making etc., and gradually, as the local skills and entrepreneurship develops, modern industries should be introduced.

Growth centres or areas showing potentiality for growth, should be identified in different regions, for optimum utilisation of resources and concentrated action. The following criteria can prove useful for selections :

- (i) Population between 15,000, to 25,000
- (ii) Rate of growth higher than the State average
- (iii) Proximity to an established industrial centre
- (iv) Convenient location from the point of view of transport and communication facilities
- (v) Availability of infrastructural facilities like power, water, banking and credit
- (iv) Developed agriculture and availability of industrial raw materials

After identifying the industrial infrastructural facilities like industrial areas and estates, power and water lines, transport and communication system and other services like banking, insurance, technical consultancy, testing and workshop facilities should be taken up. Action should be taken for the development of agriculture, animal husbandry and mining simultaneously. The development strategy should thus aim at simultaneous and coordinated development of all related sectors.

An essential element in the development of backward areas is entrepreneurship. Systematic efforts should be made to identify and nurture local talents. In this process, first the aspirations of the people should be aroused through intensive campaigns, the entrepreneurial talents should be identified with the help of modern management techniques and psychological tests and the persons coming forward should be given training, encouragement and assistance. Successful entrepreneurs should inspire and guide the younger generation.

3. *State Assistance Programme*

The assistance programme should be designed to meet the requirements of all sizes, types and regions. The financial institutions should set apart a sizeable portion of their funds for the small industries and the industries set up in backward areas and rural areas. Such rigidity is essential to cope up with the pressure of different claimants. The RFC and the commercial banks should open branch offices in these areas, give wider publicity to their schemes and solicit their clientele. They should also give guidance

about the modern techniques of financial management. Integrated view should be taken of their total requirements and different agencies should jointly undertake to meet it.

Availability of raw materials should be increased through increased production and imports. The RSIC should open storage and distribution depots at important industrial centres and make proper arrangements for their distribution. It should ensure better inventory managements. Raw materials as per the requirements of different regions should be stored at different centres. A detailed industrial survey should be carried out for this purpose. Ghost units and black marketeers should be weeded out.

Industrial areas and estates should be development at places showing demand for plots and sheds. At other places the entrepreneurs should be assisted in buying private lands and getting them converted into industrial plots. Industrial areas should be demarcated in all big cities and towns. Cooperative societies and joint stock companies set up by entrepreneurs should be encouraged to develop industrial areas. The LIC, the SBI and other commercial banks should give financial assistance for development of land and construction of sheds. Location of estates and areas should be decided after a careful study of the techno-economic factors and a cost benefit analysis. The norms of area coverage prescribed by the CSIO should be strictly followed for efficient land use. Locally available building materials should be used to keep down the cost of construction. Standard designs should be adopted to enhance the utility of the sheds. Industrial estates and areas in backward regions should be made more attractive by constructing all weather roads and other facilities like bank offices, ITIs, workshops and tool rooms, housing colonies for workers, common service facilities, bulk storage facilities, etc. Shed allotment policy should ensure maximum mutual cooperation and optimum utilisation of common service facilities. These facilities should be equitably distributed among the functioning units. Management of the estates should be made the responsibility of the entrepreneurs.

Modernisation of the industries should be taken up with a view to raising the level of efficiency, bringing down the cost of

production and releasing the industries from dependence upon protections, preferences, subsidies and reservations. The modernisation should not remain mere replacement of old machinery by new but should include induction of new technology, adoption of improved product designs, modern methods of management and marketing.

Industrial extension service should be made more efficient. Its scope should be enlarged to include counselling on production and management problems, applied industrial research, industrial training for entrepreneurs, managers, technicians and workers, testing facilities and market intelligence. A new agency, Rajasthan Industrial and Technical Consultancy Organisation (RITCO) should be set up on the pattern of the North Eastern Industrial and Technical Consultancy Organisation and the Kerala Industrial and Technical Consultancy Organisation to provide guidance and assistance in the fields of industrial promotion, management and development. This type of package consultancy organisation is essential to put an end to the existing confusion due to which an entrepreneur does not know where he should concentrate his efforts.

Industry is the most neglected activity in the rural areas of the State. While the traditional rural industries have decayed the modern industries have not grown. Industrialisation of these areas should be given higher priority. An integrated view should be taken of the problems of these areas. Mass education with vocational bias should be introduced. Infrastructural facilities should be developed. Applied research to identify suitable industries for these areas should be undertaken. Short-term orientation training should be given to the rural artisans to improve their talents and skills. Development of rural entrepreneurship should be taken up. The assistance should be given as a package for optimum results. Industries based on agriculture, animal husbandry and forests like brick kilns, oil and dal mills, cotton ginning and pressing, sugar and gur making, etc. should be specially encouraged.

Detailed techno-economic studies should be undertaken to assess the potential of ancillary industries in different product areas. The RSEB, the RRTU, the Arawali Swachalit Vahan, Alwar, Railway Workshops at Ajmer and Bharatpur should specially encourage these industries. The 'Ancillary Cell' and the 'Sub-Contracting Exchange'

should be made more active. Wider publicity should be given to their services. Industry-wise joint committees of parent and ancillary units should be set up for better contacts, coordination and understanding. Small scale ancillary units should be given statutory protection against fraudulent practices and delay and default in payments. Technically qualified and experienced managers and technical personnel working in the large scale industries should be encouraged to set up small units for manufacturing ancillary items. Common service facilities for these industries should be organized on a cooperative basis.

The assistance programme should be basically designed to help the industries to grow and to raise the levels of efficiency so that they may not need it after some time. The approach should be 'selective' and 'result oriented.' Care should be taken that these industries are not monopolised by vested interests and elite financiers. Accordingly, really needy persons who possess requisite initiative and enterprise but do not have sufficient resources should be given necessary help, assistance and guidance. Special encouragement should be given to educated unemployed, engineering degree and diploma holders, technically qualified persons and persons from weaker sections of society. Success of the programme would be judged not by the number of units assisted but by the number of the units set up by the above category of persons. The programme should not be a disincentive for growth of small scale units into medium and large scale units. Units which disintegrate into more than one unit to seek coverage of the assistance should be weeded out. The ceiling of Rs. 10 lakhs on investment in plant and machinery should be applied to the investment of a family like the ceiling on land holding and urban property.

The gap between pronouncements and implementations should be rigorously narrowed down. Bureaucratic red tape should not be allowed to frustrate the developmental efforts. Procedural formalities should be simplified. Benefit of the subsidy towards the transportation cost should be given to the industries set up in the desert region as is allowed to the industries set up in the hilly and far-flung areas of the north and north-east by the Central Government. Rapid industrialisation of this region is essential for building up the defence potential of the country. The entrepreneurs should also change their attitude and outlook and instead of hankering

after concessions and subsidies should become innovative and self-reliant. Representative bodies of the entrepreneurs should extend their cooperation for vigorous implementation of the programme.

4. Special Legislation for the Small Scale Industries

An appropriate legislation should be passed to give statutory basis to the declared state policy in view of the special problems faced by the small scale industries. The proposed legislation should provide for the following :

- (i) Compulsory registration and submission of information by the small scale industries.
- (ii) Planned growth of ancillary industries with large scale industries.
- (iii) Timely payment to ancillary units by parent units and government departments.
- (iv) Compulsory quality control.
- (v) Reservation of certain items for exclusive production by the small scale units.
- (vi) Recognition to limited partnership of entrepreneurs.

The small scale industries should be divided into three distinct categories, viz., 'tiny units' (capital investment upto Rs. 1 lakh and investment per worker not exceeding Rs. 4,000), 'smaller units' (capital investment between Rs. 1 lakhs and Rs. 5 lakhs), and 'small scale units' (capital investment between Rs. 5 lakhs and Rs. 10 lakhs. Greater attention should be given to the tiny and the smaller units which need it most.

5. Industrial Cooperatives

Cooperative form of business organization is best suited to the ethos of a democratic and developing society. Accordingly the workers should be encouraged to form cooperative societies for setting up small scale industries. The industrial cooperatives should be managed by the beneficiaries and not by the financiers and the industrial elite as at present. The cooperative sector should be revitalised and the industrial units should be operated in public interest and adapted to local needs and culture.

6. *Inter-Units Cooperation*

Inter-unit cooperation is essential for healthy growth of industries. Industrial associations should, therefore, not remain preoccupied with sectional interests but give greater attention to collective publicity, adoption of common brand names, joint scale campaigns, vocational training for entrepreneurs, common service facilities and research and development programmes.

7. *Management*

In a developing economy industrial management offers the biggest challenge. The small entrepreneurs often complain about the shortage of raw materials and finance, difficulties in marketing and production etc., but they forget that their difficulties are mainly due to lack of management skills. Efficiency and profitability in these industries can be raised considerably by adopting modern techniques of planning and coordination, material handling, inventory control, improving working conditions, balancing investment, timely ordering of raw materials, improved maintenance and financial discipline. The entrepreneurs should be trained to adopt these techniques.

Modern accounting techniques should also be adopted. Cash budget and other functional budgets should be prepared for proper understanding and appreciation of fund needs and their utilisation. This would also facilitate the work of lending institutions. The financial institutions should give training to the entrepreneurs about the use of these simple control techniques.

Conditions of work in the factories should be improved so that the workers experience greater job satisfaction. The workers should be associated with the management of their units. The entrepreneurs should not take unfair advantage of the undefended position of the workers by making under-payment of wages and by refusing to grant facilities normally enjoyed by the organised labour.

The entrepreneurs should be made conscious about their social obligations and they should provide training and guidance to the youngmen seeking employment, regularly raise productivity, efficiency and bring down the cost by eliminating wastage and keep a check on the prices of essential commodities. Thus the

interests of the workers as well as the consumers should be protected. Earnest efforts should be made to put the above suggestions into practice so that this sector may assume identity as the core sector of the economy.

R. K. SAPRU

Strikes and Political Activities of Government Employees : A Case Study of Haryana

Most of the democratic countries have a characteristic of recognising the right to strike/lock-out subject to certain conditions. The degree of freedom granted to this end, however, varies from country to country. In the industrial sphere, for instance in India, the Industrial Disputes Act, 1947 allows the manual labour to go on strike as a last resort to meet their demands. But the act makes a strike (or lock-out) in the public utility service (railways, posts and telegraphs and those dealing with supply of power, light or water and any system of public conservancy or sanitation) illegal if it takes place :

- (i) without giving to the employer a notice of strike within six weeks before striking;
- (ii) within fourteen days of giving such notice; or
- (iii) before the expiry of the date of strike specified in any strike notice; and
- (iv) during pendency of conciliation proceedings and seven days after the conclusion of such proceedings.¹

In the legality of government service in Haryana, we have to examine, whether employees (Class III & IV) are allowed to resort to strike in connection with any matter pertaining to their conditions of service. Until 1959, the All India Services (Conduct) Rules 1954 did not prohibit the government servants' right to participate in any demonstration or resort to any form of strike,

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although Central Civil Services (Conduct) Rules, 1955 provided for it.² But through an amendment, Punjab Government prohibited demonstrations and strikes. It says that "no government servant shall participate in any demonstration or resort to any form of strike in connection with any matter pertaining to his or other 'employees' conditions of service."³ Later the Central Government and some of the States even passed legislation to outlaw strikes from public services. The Administrative Reforms Commission supported the government by expressing its views :

We wish to record as our considered view that strikes are out of place in government departments. A government servant holds a special position in society in that he is a part of the machinery—the administration—on whose uninterrupted and efficient functioning depends the well-being of society, nay, its very survival.⁴

It further stated that :

So whatever grievances a government servant may have to either as an individual or as a member of group of government servants, redress must be sought invariably through a suitable machinery for negotiation and in no case through recourse to coercive measures that disrupt the smooth functioning of the administration.⁵

Similarly, the Government of Haryana, issued instructions to all its heads of departments, on the occasion of the first threatend strike of the government employees from 10 January 1962, asking them to prevent the employees from participating in the one-day token strike. The letter read :

It should be made clear to them that it will be against their own interests if they join the strike and they will also render themselves liable to disciplinary action for wilful absence from duty, which action they ought to know can include the absence being treated as interruption in service (with forfeiture of past service for purpose of pension), and adverse entry in the personal file etc.⁶

On the contrary, the representatives of government employees in Haryana pleaded that strike was only the last method for the support

of their demand. In a letter to the Chief Minister, Haryana, the President of the Haryana Subordinate Service Federation remarked that "the strike was the outcome of the economic unrest prevailing among the employees."⁷

As a result of these developments, the question of strike in government service, Haryana has become a subject of public controversy and also of some legal interpretation. In March 1958, in case of Patna Ministerial Association vs. the State of Bihar, the petitioner argued that the right to strike and demonstrate was necessary adjunct to the fundamental right to form associations and freedom of expression. The High Court, however, ruled out the contention on the ground that so far as the government servants were concerned, the freedom guaranteed under the Constitution did not include freedom to strike and demonstration publicly. According to the High Court, the way in which government servants conducted themselves was a matter of public importance and interest. The public interest would suffer if government servants resorted to strike and demonstration.⁸

The right to form association or union by the employees under the Article 19(I) (c) of the Indian Constitution is guaranteed, but public employees do not enjoy this right to the same extent as is being enjoyed by the trade unions and hence their action like resorting to strike becomes illegal. In a text of the statement, the then Union Home Minister, Mr. Chavan, on the threat of the token strike on 19 September 1968 by the Central Government employees, observed : "Such a strike will cause great hardship to the community at large and will also result in so many difficulties for the striking personnel themselves for failure to perform their obligatory duties as public servants."⁹

In an oft-quoted statement, President Roosevelt also once declared :

Particularly, I want to emphasize my conviction that militant tactics have no place in the functions of any organisation of government employees... Since their own services have to do with the functioning of the government, a strike of public employees manifests nothing less than an intent on their

part to prevent or obstruct the operations of government until their demands are satisfied.¹⁰

It is further contended that the very possession of the right to strike would have an adverse psychological influence upon those who possess it, as it fortifies their will as well as their power to resist, by offering an alternative to negotiations with the good will of the other party.¹¹ The Second Pay Commission of India maintained :

It is wrong that public servants should resort to strike or threaten to do so and that persons entrusted with the responsibility for operating services essential to the life of the community should seek to disorganise and interrupt those service in order to promote their interests. Apart from those moral aspects, there is little doubt that the Indian conditions in which there is often a possibility of eruption of indiscipline in any ugly form in one section of the community or another, a strike or even demonstrations by government servants cannot but be a factor making for indiscipline generally.¹²

The details of strikes of public employees relations in Haryana, as shown in Annexure I, indicate that the reality and threat of such action by government employees constitute a critical problem in public personnel administration. On 27 February 1972, the Federal Council of the Haryana Service Federation served the State Government with an ultimatum to concede its demands or face the "consequences" of direct action, including strike.¹³ Since the formation of Haryana in 1966, the State employees did not discontinue their struggle in support of their demands on the lines of Punjab Subordinate Services Federation. After having failed to reach any consensus on 30 December 1967 with the Governor of Haryana,¹⁴ representatives of the employees resorted to one day's token strike which proved 98.2 percent success with minor instances of violence.¹⁵

As a result of the one-day token strike, the government announced the second increase in dearness allowance with effect from 1 January 1968.

However, the following categories of personnel were still unsatisfied :

1. **Teachers :** Teachers remained dissatisfied due to deduction in dearness allowance and with-holding of service benefit as anomalies left in case of various categories of teachers.

2. **Nurses Belonging to Para-Medical Staff :** They demanded full dearness allowance which had not yet been granted to them.

3. **Roadways Workers :** They demanded bonus which had not so far granted to them.

4. **I. T. I. Staff :** They demanded central grade because only 40 percent was being borne by the State and 60 percent by the Central Government.

5. **Entire Subordinate Staff :** They demanded dearness allowance with effect from 1 May 1967 and the second increase with effect from 1 November 1967.

Since their demands were not fully conceded, the Federation sent a memorandum on 18 January 1968 to the President of India for intervention as the Central Government under Clause 82 (4) (b) of Punjab Reorganisation Act, 1966 was "required to ensure fair and equitable treatment."¹⁶ Simultaneously, another strike notice for two days for 8 and 9 February 1968 was served on the Haryana Government on 14 January 1968 for the fulfilment of certain demands.

In view of this threat, the government, however, offered grant of second increase in dearness allowance with effect from 1 November 1967 and grant of dearness allowance with effect from 1 May 1967 in the shape of 'deferred payment' on the pattern of Central Government which finally resulted in the failure of reaching agreement and hence strike for two days. It is said that employees observed a peaceful and non-violent strike for two days throughout the State, resulting into 70 to 80 percent success in districts and 98 percent success at Chandigarh itself.¹⁷

As a result of two days strike, Mr. Avtar Singh, President of Ambala Unit of the Haryana Subordinate Service Federation was placed under suspension from 8 February 1968 and as many as 200 employees were suspended or their services were terminated or transferred.¹⁸ The position can be well judged by observing the following table :

TABLE 1

Punishment Given to State Employees in 1968

Place	Before (Withdrawal of "Satyagrah")	After Movement)
Arrests Under Various Penal Sections		
Safidon	-	7
Jind	8	-
Ambala	42	9
Sirsa	5	-
Rohtak	4	7
Karnal	4	-
Delhi	-	1
Chandigarh	1	11
Suspension other than Arrests		
Ambala	18	-
Karnal	1	1
Rohtak	10	2
Dabwali	3	-
Gurgaon	2	-
Chandigarh	5	-
Termination of Services		
Chandigarh	3	-
Ambala	11	-
Rohtak	2	-
Transfers including Reversions		
Chandigarh	6	-
Ambala	2	-
Karnal	2	-
Rohtak	1	2
Gurgaon	1	-

Besides strike, employees have staged demonstrations to press their demands. In the Annexure II, details of various demonstrations and rallies which resorted to by the employees are given. It is, therefore, observed that employees have mainly

staged demonstrations and rallies but have taken recourse to strikes only rarely in protest against the indifferent attitude of the government towards their demands.

Associations of public employees in Haryana now have explicitly renounced the strike as a legitimate operational technique. Since February 1968, there has been no general strike by the public employees in Haryana though threat to this effect was given by Mr. Sher Singh, Senior Vice President of the Haryana Subordinate Services Federation on 27 February 1972,¹⁹ when election to Haryana Vidhan Sabha was nearing. Though strike is not permissible in the government service, employees have not abandoned the right of staging peaceful demonstration in front of their offices.

It is quite apparent that the growth of such a situation would call for a healthy and continuous development of unionism and the fullest use of the machinery of negotiation, conciliation and arbitration. As Sterling D. Spero has said that "continuity of governmental functions depends upon the cooperation of society as a whole quite as much as the rest of society depends upon the functioning of government"²⁰ He has also remarked that

[T]he life of a free society depends upon the maintenance of freedom and authority in delicate balance. The preservation of this balance depends, in turn, upon mutual restraint on the part of both the government and its employees founded upon the recognition of the fact that in real life there is neither complete liberty nor absolute sovereignty.²¹

It does not follow that government employees may claim a moral right to strike on the ground that workers in private industry engaged in functions of equal social importance enjoy the privilege. It is equally important to contend in terms of social necessity that the paramount obligation of the government is to ensure the continuity of vital functions, whether public or private, and hence to restrain conduct which could menace the uninterrupted provision of essential services. But by the same token, it is also necessary that public servants charged with the responsibility of assuring their sustained provision should be permitted to resort to strike the light of their demands. Public

employees sometimes resort to strike on the ground that numerous services provided by government agencies are often no more or less vital than many which are furnished under private auspices. Thus, most of the government teachers in Haryana went on two days strike on 8-9 February 1968 owing to the discriminating attitude of the government. The grant of Kothari Grades to teachers was enforced from 1 December 1967 instead of 1 March 1966.²²

From this, it appears that government was itself creating a situation in which employees had no other alternative than to resort to strike. A government employee's work and conduct have a direct effect on the people. This places him in a privileged position from which he exercises power and commands respect. Society can, therefore, expect of him in return to behave as a model citizen who will not place its welfare in jeopardy by any action of his.²³ In the case of Kameshwar Prasad versus State of Bihar, the Supreme Court upheld the validity of the other part of the rule which prohibits the resort to strikes by government servants who are not governed by the Industrial Disputes Act.²⁴

It may be concluded if the prohibition of strikes in public employment (as suggested by the Administrative Reforms Commission) is politically necessary, the imposition of such restrictions creates an urgent moral obligation on the part of the government to provide means for equitable consideration of employee's needs. The remedy to this major challenge which has arisen to confront modern bureaucracies lies, as Macmohan has pointed out, not in "stern negotiations but [in] positive preventives."²⁵ Thus the preservation of the freedom of association would appear to demand the establishment of some system of collective consultation which would recognise the right of public employees to share in the determination of their conditions of employment. This would be in exchange for the surrender of the right to strike against the government employer. But it is pointed out that despite Administrative Reforms Commission's recommendation for the establishment of joint consultative machinery in the State, there appears to have existed no device in Haryana except recognised association, in lieu of right of strike.

Political Activities

Civil servants are denied the right to engage in political activities individually or collectively on the plea that such constraints are indispensable in the discharge of public functions in an impartial way. On the other hand, civil servants, nowadays, assert that these restraints be justified on concrete, relevant grounds and not by the mere assertions that civil service cannot enjoy political rights. This may be one of the causes for the emergence of unionism in the civil service. Obviously public employees must not be asked to support political candidates or campaign during the election days. Secondly, they must perform their duties without discrimination and partnership. But in their capacity as citizens, some employees in the government service have voluntarily longed to participate in political activities without a compromise in the performance of their responsibilities. From the following table it becomes clear that out of 50 employees, as a sample of study, 35 assistants and clerks were found to be interested in political activities.

TABLE 2**Interest/Non-interest of Employees in Political Activities**

	Age between		Sex		Total
	18-25	26-45	Male	Female	
Interested	20	15	33	2	35
Non-interested	5	10	14	1	15
Total	25	25	47	3	50

But political neutrality is an essential part of a career system otherwise the political activity of government employees will threaten the neutral performance of bureaucratic functions, Godine observed:

The doctrine of neutrality demands first that public employees carry out official policies conscientiously and energetically regardless of their personal or collective opinion concerning their wisdom, practicability, or justice. Decisions made by supervisory officials responsible to the public or its representatives must receive unquestioning acceptance by the entire bureaucracy. Moreover, public services must be provided without regard to the political or other affiliations of the recipients. Political activity or any other conduct on the part of the public employees should therefore be prohibited. Whenever it threatens the preservation of the neutrality or impartiality indispensable to the functioning of a responsible bureaucracy.²⁵

In order to help the civil service to develop the concept of neutrality imposition of some restrictions upon their political rights, therefore, becomes necessary. In the better functioning of bureaucracy different democratic countries have construed different restraints upon their civil servants.

Thus the rules of the Civil Service Commission and the provisions of the Hatch Act of the United States (to which the Indian position approximates most) prohibit civil servants from assuming any active part in political management or political campaign. Removal from office is prescribed as a mandatory penalty for their violation. In addition, the statutory prohibition has been construed to prohibit public employees from addressing political gatherings or publishing any letter or article, signed or unsigned in favour or against any political party, candidate or serving as a candidate for national, state, country or municipal office in which partisan politics are involved.²⁷

In Great Britain, the civil servants are divided into two categories, viz., the industrial and the non-industrial. Government employees working in industrial and business departments and agencies are termed as industrial civil servants and they exercise all the political rights which are possessed by ordinary citizen. Government servants working in the non-industrial and non-business departments are treated as non-industrial civil servants and, for the purpose of enjoyment of political rights, they are divided into three classes, viz., the "free

class," "the intermediate class" and "the restricted class," and it is only to the last class that all political rights, except right to vote, passive party membership and local government membership, are denied. The first class (free class) enjoys a free area of all varieties of political activities, except when it involves a "blatant violation of the public trust,"²⁸ and the intermediate class is also allowed, with the previous permission of the department concerned, all forms of political activities, except parliamentary candidature.²⁹

Several other countries such as Italy, West Germany and Japan impose similar restrictions upon the political activities of their civil servants. On the other hand, there are countries such as Australia, New Zealand and Switzerland which grant political rights to their civil servants.

Political rights given to the public employees in Haryana are more consonant with those of the U. S. A. than England. The civil servants here have the right to vote in parliamentary assembly, and local elections. But they can neither be members of any political party nor aid or assist, in any manner, any political movement or activity in India or abroad relating to Indian affairs.³⁰ They cannot even permit a member of their family to take part in or in any way assist, any movement or activity which is, or which tends directly or indirectly, to be, subversive of government as by law established in India.³¹ They cannot stand in parliamentary, State legislature, or local body election,³² nor can propose or second the nomination paper of any candidature.³³ While a member of the service has the right to vote, but where he does so, he shall give no indication of the manner in which he proposes to vote or has voted. He cannot collect funds or sell tickets even for non-political bodies.³⁴ For instance, under Memo. No. E7/21786-925 dated 21 April 1969 issued by Miss J. Mehtab Singh, District Education Officer, Ambala, Mr. Avtar Singh (under suspension), an employee in the District Education Office, was charged for collection of private funds.

Civil Rights

In respect of their civil rights, no member of the service, in any radio broadcast or in any document published anonymously,

pseudonymously or in his own name or in any other person or in any communication to the press or in any public utterance, ³⁶ can make any statement of fact or opinion which is capable of embarrassing the relations between the Central Government or any State Government or any foreign government and the people of India, or any section thereof. ³⁷ They may, however, broadcast talks on literary, scientific, academic, historical, social or religious subjects with the previous permission of the government. The government may also permit them to broadcast a talk on departmental subject, provided previous approval of the text of the talk is sought from the government.

While these rules provide a strict watch on the political activities of the civil servants, they should not be ignored for public interest because in the capacity of citizens, they form a significant part of the total population of the country. The government should change its policy of rigid control and allow the civil service, as advised by Second Central Pay Commission, "to breathe in an atmosphere of freedom and self-confidence."³⁸ Tyagi has also remarked in this connection : "Although some restrictions are necessary in the context of our parliamentary democracy, and specially of our politics being largely sectional and communal, yet a negative doctrine of civil service neutrality has become out-of-date in the context of our basic objectives of a welfare state and socialistic pattern of society as our national goal."³⁹ The civil servants, as the instrument of public policy, as remarked by J. L. Nehru, have to be "conditioned" into the environment of welfare society and the new social and economic values. They have to be imbued with a sense of public interest.⁴⁰

But we find that in almost all the leading countries, there is a tendency to lessen the restraint on political activities of civil servants. For example, the provincial administration of the province of Saskatchewan in Canada has recently enacted a public service law granting government workers freedom to engage in political activity subject to such restraints as are clearly necessary in the public interest. Restrictions stipulate that

[N]o person in the public service shall...compelled to take part in any political undertaking, or to make any contribution

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to any political party...or directly or indirectly use...the authority or official influence of his position to control... the political action of any other person; or during his hours of duty engage in any form of political activity or at any time take part in political activities as to impair his usefulness in the position in which he is employed.⁴¹

Subject to these restrictions, however, it may be said that civil servants in Saskatchewan (Canada) are as free as other citizens to participate in political affairs or campaigns. They may even be granted thirty days' leave of absence to run for public office and are permitted to retain their positions in the event of defeat.

This experiment in the province of Saskatchewan (Canada) has shown preservation of a merit system in personnel management on the one hand and political liberty to be enjoyed by the public employees on the other. For restrictions upon political activity, as Charles Beard remarked, "exclude from political life thousands of our best men and women."

And hence it remains to be seen whether a bureaucracy wherein political activities are denied to the public servants by the Haryana Government which came into existence only thirteen years back (1966) will prove effective in the preservation of impartiality or neutrality of public employees which is essential to the functioning of responsible bureaucracy. However, it may be suggested that the exercise of political right by the public employee is definitely required, if not misused. In the provincial administration of the province of Saskatchewan (Canada), there is, therefore, the need to think in terms of relaxation in the exercise of political rights to be enjoyed by the government employees in Haryana subject to certain limitations.

ANNEXURE I

Number of Days of Strike and Demands upto 1 March 1972

<i>Date</i>	<i>Days</i>	<i>Demand</i>
10. 1. 1968	One	1. Benefit of Central D. A. 2. Implementation of Kothari Commission Grades 3. Revision of Pay-scales 4. Abolition of Professional Tax 5. Setting-up of a Pay Commission etc.
8/9. 2. 1968	Two	1. Implementation of Recommendations of Kothari Commission in respect of Haryana Teachers 2. Grant of D. A. w. e. f. 1 May 1967 3. Abolition of Professional Tax 4. Bonus to Roadways Workers 5. Recognition of Haryana Subordinate Services Federation 6. Setting up of a Whitley Council etc.

ANNEXURE II

Main Demonstration and Rallies Staged at Various Places since November 1966 in Haryana

6-12-1966	Demonstration Day was observed through out the State.
7-1-1967	Demonstration at Chandigarh.
25-3-1968	Peaceful demonstration and rallies at Chandigarh.
30-3-1968	Peaceful black flags at Chandigarh.
31-3-1968 to 12-4-1968	Indefinite fast by the leaders of Haryana Subordinate Services Federation after staging big public rally at Chandigarh in Sector 22 wearing black flags in sympathy with the fasting leaders.
11-12-1968	Rally at Karnal.
12-12-1968	Demonstration at Ambala.
17-12-1968	Rally and procession at Rohtak and Gurgaon.
15-7-1969	Rally and demonstration at Sonapat.
16-7-1969	Rally and demonstration at Panipat.
17-7-1969	Rally and demonstration at Hissar.
18-7-1969	Rally and demonstration at Sirsa.
19-7-1969	Rally and demonstration at Bhiwani.
20-7-1969	Rally and demonstration at Jind.
22-7-1969 to 25-7-1969	Rallies and demonstrations at Narwana, Mahendragarh, Narnaul, Gurgaon, and Faridabad.
27-7-1969	Rally and demonstration at Rohtak.
29-7-1969	Rally and demonstration at Gohana.

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30-7-1969

Rally and demonstration at Karnal.

31-7-1969

Rally and demonstration at Gulha.

10-12-1969

Hunger strike by the PWD Workers Union, Karnal.

4-8-1970

Gate-meetings, rallies and demonstrations at

to

Chandigarh.

14-8-1970

22-10-1970

Demonstrations at Chandigarh.

to

23-10-1970

6-2-1971

Rally at Chandigarh.

14-4-1971

Demonstration at Ambala City.

22-7-1971

Peaceful rally at Chandigarh.

23-2-1972

Peaceful demonstration at Rohtak.

24-2-1972

Peaceful demonstration at Hissar.

ANNEXURE III

Shri Darvesha Nand, Clerk, Record Office, Narwana was charge-sheeted on account of his remaining absent from duty without leave on the 8th and 9th Feb., 1968. His explanation was called and having found the same unsatisfactory, it was decided to hold a regular enquiry against him. The Sub Divisional Officer (Civil), Narwana who was appointed as Enquiry Officer to enquire into the allegation levelled against him has submitted his enquiry report dated 3.9.1968. The Sub Divisional Officer (Civil), Narwana has reported that the charge levelled against him has been established. I have carefully considered the enquiry report of the Enquiry Officer. The charge against him has been fully proved. He has not been able to rebut the charge. I accordingly order that a punishment of censure be inflicted upon Shri Darvesha Nand, Clerk, Record Office, Narwana. A copy of the orders be also placed on his character roll file.

Sd.

Deputy Commissioner
Jind

Endst. No. 5080-81/EA dated 9.10.1968

A copy is forwarded to:

1. Shri Darvesha Nand, Clerk, Record Office, Narwana for information.
2. Establishment Assistant, for information and necessary action.

Sd.

Deputy Commissioner
Jind

NOTES

1. The data for the research was collected between the years 1970 and 1972 and hence facts and figures relate up to 1972.
2. Rule No. 4 (A) of Central Civil Services (Conduct) Rules, 1955.
3. Haryana/Punjab Government Servants (Conduct) Rules No. (24) A. See Punjab Government Notification No. 7018-GII-59/10250 dated 1-8-59.
4. Administrative Reforms Commission, **Report on Personnel Administration** (New Delhi, April 1969), p. 91.
5. *Ibid.*, p. 91.
6. Letter No. 148-Pol. 68/316 dated 5-1-68 from Chief Secretary to Government of Haryana to all Heads of Departments.
7. Letter to Chief Minister, Bansi Lal from the President, Haryana Subordinate Services Federation, Chandigarh, dated 21-7-71.
8. **The Civil Affairs**, V (April 1958), pp. 31-32.
9. Home Minister, Mr. Y. B. Chavan's appeal to the government employees (the extract of the publication of the Government of India in September 1968).
10. President Roosevelt's letter to the President of the National Federation of Federal Employees, August 16, 1937.
11. The Second Pay Commission, **Report** (1957-59), p. 293.
12. *Ibid*, p. 293.
13. **The Tribune**, dated 29 February 1972.
14. *Ibid*, dated 31 December 1967.
15. Figure mentioned in a memorandum to the President of India, dated 18 January 1968.
16. **Punjab Reorganisation Act**, 1966, Clause 82/(4) (b).
17. An analysis of the Haryana employees struggle issued by the Federation.

18. Figure obtained from a letter addressed to the President of India vide no. HSSF/61169 dated 6-11-69.
19. **The Tribune**, dated 29 February 1972.
20. Sterling Spero "Government as Employer" (New York, 1948), pp. 486-87.
21. **Ibid.**
22. Information got from the office of Education Secretary, Haryana Government, Chandigarh vide Education Secretary's letter no 122-IF-ED II 168/540 dated 5 January 1968.
23. Administrative Reforms Commission, **Report on Personnel Administration** (New Delhi, April 1969), p. 91.
24. **A. I. R.** 1962, **S. C. R.** 1966.
25. Macmahon, "The New York City Transit System," **Political Science Quarterly** (June 1941), p. 198.
26. M. R. Godine, **Labour Problem in Public Service** (1951), pp. 188-189.
27. See **Federal Personnel Manual** published by the U. S. Government.
28. **Masterman Committee Report**, 1948, as adopted by the National Whitley Council.
29. A. R. Tyagi, **The Civil Service in a Developing Society** (Delhi : Atma Ram, 1969), p. 366.
30. Government Servants (Conduct) Rules 1965, Rule 22 (1).
31. **Ibid**, Rule 22 (I) (ii).
32. **Ibid**, Rule 22 (3).
33. **Ibid**, Rule 22 (2).
34. **Ibid**, Rule 16.
35. Information collected from the President, Haryana Subordinate Service Federation.

36. Government Servants (Conduct) Rules 1965, Rule 22 (1).
37. **Ibid**, Rule 18 (1).
38. The Second Pay Commission, **Report**, 1957-59, p. 525.
39. A. R. Tyagi, **The Civil Service in a Developing Society**, pp. 369-70.
40. J. L. Nehru, President Address to the Fourth General Body Meeting of Indian Institute of Public Administration on 5 April 1968.
41. **Public Service Act**, 1947, Sec. 54.

G. VIDYA RANI

Socio-Economic Background of Women in Government : An Empirical Survey

The process of modernization in developing countries has created altogether new problems. Women who were confined to the four walls of the kitchen and in looking after the families have started playing a new role and taking more active part in all walks of life including the administration of the country. The process, by and large, indicates that women are bound to play increasingly important role in times to come. Consequently their numerical strength is bound to increase in administration.

Women in India belong to weaker sections of the society and therefore, their participation in any walk of life, particularly in administration is viewed as a sign of progress. In this context, it is necessary to know from what strata of society they are drawn. It gives us an insight into the social process of a transitional society. One of the methods of analyzing this is to examine the socio-economic background of the women employees in government.

The working and behavioural style of the women employees at various levels of administration is of crucial importance. The behavioural style can be analyzed by getting at the heart of their value system. One of the methods of knowing the value system is to analyze the socio-economic background of these employees. This approach is based on the assumption that socio-economic background shapes the value system of the individual. It is necessary to understand the value system particularly when the thrust of governmental programmes is on neglected sections of the society. After gaining an insight into the attitudes and values, it is felt that an effective strategy can be devised to create desirable attitudes for effective functioning of the bureaucracy.

The study

The study is conducted at the district headquarters of Warangal (Andhra Pradesh) and also in the Hyderabad City—the capital of Andhra Pradesh. The sample is drawn at random basis interviewing 60 women administrators from Warangal and 60 from the city of Hyderabad.

The respondents belong to Class I, Class II, Class III and Class IV services. They are lecturers, junior lecturers, teachers, district social welfare officer, bank manager, bank clerks, doctors, nurses, ayas, clerks and typists.

The investigation focuses on the socio-economic background of women employees in government. The author administered a structured questionnaire to 120 women employees of the Central, State and local governments and of the nationalised banks. These belonged to a variety of services: education (44), medical (18), nationalised banks (9), post and telegraph (9) and other government offices (40), viz., revenue, excise, zilla parishad, agriculture, district court, and district social welfare office.

Out of the 120 respondents, 89 (about 74%) belong to the group of 21–35 years and the remaining belong to the age group of 36–50 years. It indicates that women employees, in general, are young in this country and have entered the government only in recent years.

As regards the educational background of the respondents, about 50 of them are matriculates, 40 are graduates and 30 are post-graduates belonging to various faculties and disciplines.

TABLE 1

Caste and Religious Background of the Respondents

Caste and Religion	Number	Percentage
Forward	49	40.83
Backward	16	13.33
Scheduled	4	3.34
Muslims	18	15.00
Christians	33	37.50
Total	120	100.00

Table 1 deals with the caste and religious background of the respondents. Of the total sample, 40.83 percent of them belong to forward castes and 13.33 percent to backward castes. From the minority communities 15 percent are muslims and 27.5 percent are christians. In the forward castes the presence of Brahmins is as large as 52 percent. It is clear that the representation of scheduled caste women in government employment is quite negligible (3.34%)

TABLE 2

Service Background of the Respondents

Service in Years	Number	Percentage
1-2	23	19.16
3-5	31	25.83
6-10	29	24.17
11-15	11	9.17
16-20	15	12.50
21 and above	11	9.17
Total	120	100.00

Table 2 deals with the service background of the respondents. About 50 percent of the respondents possess 1-5 years of service, 24.17 percent between 6-10 years, 21.67 percent between 11-20 years, and 9.17 percent of the respondents possess 21 years and above of service. The mean service of 8.8 years indicates the recent entry of women into government employment.

TABLE 3

Monthly Pay of the Respondents

Pay Range (in Rupees)	Number	Percentage
1	2	3
100-200	9	7.5
201-400	33	27.5

1	2	3
401-600	43	35.83
601-800	15	12.50
801-1000	13	10.83
1001 and above	7	5.84
Total	120	100.00

Table 3 shows the pay of the respondents. About 35 percent of the respondents are in the range of Rs. 100-400, 48.33 percent are in the range of Rs. 401-800, 10.83 percent are in the range of Rs. 801-1000 while only 5.84 percent are in the range of above Rs. 1001. Majority of the respondents are in the pay range of Rs. 201-600. This indicates that large number of women employees in government belong to lower levels of administration.

Regarding rural and urban background of respondents, a great majority, i. e., 84.17 percent are from the urban area, and only 15.83 percent hail from rural area in government service. This shows the poor representation of rural women and dominance of urban women in government service.

TABLE 4
Father's Profession of the Respondents

Profession	Number	Percentage
Government service	69	57.50
Agriculturists	20	16.66
Business	10	8.34
Professional	11	9.16
Did not reply	10	8.34
Total	120	100.00

Table 4 shows that about 57.5 percent of the respondents are daughters of government employees, 16.66 percent of agriculturists, 8.34 percent of businessmen and only 9.16 percent had their fathers from professional group. The rest of 8.34 percent respondents did not respond to the question.

The family profile of the respondents shows that almost an equal number of employees belong to nuclear families and joint families.

This does reflect upon the gradual disintegration of the joint family system.

TABLE 5
Number of Members of the Respondents, Family

Members	Number	Percentage
1-3	21	18.10
4-6	46	39.66
7-10	39	33.62
11-15	7	6.04
16 and above	3	2.58
Total	116	100.00

Table 5 shows the number of numembers in the family of respondents. 18.10 percent of respondents have 1-3 members, 39.66 percent between 4-6, 33.62 percent between 7-10, 6.04 percent between 11-15 and 2.58 percent have 16 members and above in their families. It shows that nearly 40 percent come from large families and another one third of them from planned families.

Regarding the marital status of the respondents, 71.66 percent are married and 28.34 percent are unmarried. About the professional background of husbands, 72 percent of the husbands of respondents are government employees, 12 percent are in business and indusury and 16 percent are professionals. About 64 percent of the respondents are working at the same place where their husbands work while remaining 36 percent respondents' husbands are not working at the same place.

TABLE 6
Number of Children (Multiple Response)

Age of the Children (in years)	No. of Children	Percentage
1-3	51	30.9
4-6	23	13.9
7-10	32	19.4
11- and above	69	35.8

Table 6 reveals that there are about 31 percent of the respondents who have children in the age group of 1-3 years. This age group being too young, the mothers are overstrained because of the greater time demanded by the younger children of their mothers and the requirements of a regular job.

Conclusion

To sum up the findings of the study, the respondents are young as their mean age is 30.9 years. About the educational qualifications, 84 percent respondents are highly educated as most of them are graduates (48 %) and post-graduates (36 %).

The caste background analysis reveals that the representation of backward and scheduled castes is negligible while the number of Brahmins and Christians is striking.

The respondents mostly belong to 3-5 years and 6-10 years service group as the average service worked out is 8.8 years. The young age and limited service span support the assumption that women started entering into government employment only during the last decade.

The salary position reveals that most of them are working at lower scales.

The respondents overwhelmingly belong to urban areas and their fathers are engaged in government employment.

About the domestic profile, half of the respondents are staying in joint families while the remaining half belong to nuclear families. The number of members in the family generally ranged between 4-10. The marital status of the respondents shows that about 66 percent are married and have children either in the age group of 1-3 years or 11 and above.

KAMAL MATHUR

Relevance of Gandhian Economics

Gandhiji clearly put forward his economic approach in stark normative terms, in sharp contrast to the positivist normative approach. Men must engage in economic activity with whatever resources are available to them; the economic system must be devoid of all exploitation; it must be based to each according to his needs but the needs must not be allowed to become self multiplying.¹ There are two different approaches for the economic development of a country. One is the western type, which believes that only a sound programme of quick industrialisation can accelerate the development of a country and in the process of large scale development, employment opportunities will be created automatically and thus it confers economic justice. A slight variation of this type is the Marxian centralized development approach which emphasizes the special social institutions which are capable of bringing social justice and creating economic equality. Secondly, another kind of development comes from Gandhian approach which is the combination of decentralized industries, agro-industries oriented rural development, work oriented and technical education, unavoidable larger scale industries in the public sector and self-reliant growth. Thus Gandhian approach is based on the economic tenets, austerity and decentralization. Austerity is a basic condition for equitable growth of a poor society and decentralization is necessary to absorb the total man power and skill available in the country. In short, the goal of Gandhian economics is the maximization of human happiness with mental and moral growth. While to Smith, the goal of economics is the maximization of welfare by increasing per capita income and wealth of nation. To Marx, it is the abolition of capitalism for establishing equality.

No two nations can be identical in their social, economic and political problems, culture, social environment and natural resources.

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Prashasnika, Volume IX Nos. 1-2, January-June 1980.

If a nation follows the same pattern of development which any other, country has followed, it will find itself in an embarrassing situation giving rise to multiple problems. Therefore, economic set up and socio-cultural environment of a country must be taken into consideration while deciding the pattern and process of development programme. Each country has to choose its developmental system according to its ecological constraints.

Gandhian approach to the economic development of a country stresses that in order to achieve increased production, employment and equality in sharing of the product and for end of exploitation and poverty to achieve human happiness, fuller utilization of rural manpower and rural raw product is necessary. For the purpose, the emphasis on cottage and handloom industries is necessary. Thus Gandhi was against the introduction of machines and mechanisation which not merely can ruin the Indian economy through industrialization but will bring about total dehumanization of man in factories.

By favouring the normative approach of economics, Gandhiji has broken a demarcation line between economics and other social sciences. To him, economics is the economics of justice. People will be happy in so far as they learn to do justice and be righteous. All else is not only vain but leads to destruction. To teach people to get rich by hook or by crook is to do them an immense harm.² An economic system based on exploitation must be rejected on normative ground. All the men of a society have the right to work and get their share of bread. Material progress of a country should not clash with its moral progress, instead material progress of a country must necessarily advance the latter.³

Concept of increased equality in sharing of the product must not be confused with the crude equality. The real implication of equal distribution is that each man shall have only that much of wealth which will meet all his natural needs and no more. To bring this ideal into being the entire social order has got to be reconstructed. A society based on non-violence cannot nurture any other ideal. The development-list of the western type believe that it is the only capital intensive technique which can increase the economic development of a country. Gandhiji was not opposed to the use of machinery if it did not deprive masses of the opportunity to labour and instead helped the individual add up to his efficiency without being its slave. The supreme consideration is man. The machine should not tend to make atrophied the limbs of man.⁴

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Gandhiji had remarked that just where the machines cease to help the individual and encroach upon his individuality, they should not be encouraged for "men in charge of machines will think out of themselves even of the nation to which they belong out of the whole human race" ⁵

Gandhiji repeatedly stated that there is always a strong case for adoption of small or large innovation or invention if it benefits the masses. Since there is always a demand for the use of a heavy machinery, it may be used in the public sector, but we must not favour large machineries in the case when the same work can be done by a small machine. Human factor was the main concern of Gandhiji's thinkings. Therefore, he emphasized strongly on cottage industries in the villages of India where 80 percent of its population lives.

Large scale industrialization leads to the concentration of economic power and in order to avoid the path of industrialization and by concentrating on village industries, India would find a remedy for her many problems. The objectives of ensuring employment was Gandhi's constant refrain.

Mechanization is good when the hands are too paid for the work intended to be accomplished. It is an evil when there are man hands required for the work, as is the case in India. I may not use a plough for digging a few square yards of a plot of land. The problem for us is not how find leisure for the hundreds of millions inhabiting in our villagas. The problem is how to utilize their idle hours.

Gandhiji defended the village cottage industries on the ground that these are devoid of exploitation. He favoured industrialization to the extent that such factories should be rationalized or state controlled. These might to be working under the most attractive and ideal conditions, not for profit but for the benefit of humanity love taking the place of greed as the motive. It is an alteration in the condition of labour that Gandhiji wanted. This mad rush for wealth must cease and the labour must be assumed, not only of a living wage, but a daily task that is not mere drudgery. The machine will, under these conditions, be as much as help to the man working it as to the state, or the man who owns it. ⁷

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Emphasizing the industrialization in public sector, Gandhiji stated that the heavy machinery for work of public utility which cannot be undertaken by human labour has its inevitable place, but all that would be owned by the state and used entirely for the benefit of the people.

The views of Gandhiji on problems of technology, employment, growth and social justice, can be summarized in one of his statements as follows :

I want to save time, labour, not for a fraction of mankind, but for all, I want the concentration of wealth not in the hands of a few but in the hands of all. Today machinery belongs to ride on the back of millions. The inputs behind it is not the philanthropy to save labour, but greed. It is against this constitution of things that I am fighting with all my might.

The Indian Scene

India has accepted the ideology of the democratic welfare state committed to the egalitarian doctrine and accepted economic planning as its direct concern. Social and economic equality has been regarded as very important goal. During the thirty years of our planning, the growth in the per capita income level has not shown a satisfactory picture and the gap between the rich and the poor, educated and illiterate have widened. Green revolution, nationalization of commercial banks and other measures have improved the standard of living to very little extent. India could not achieve the goal of eradication of poverty, unemployment and backwardness. According to the twenty seventh round of NSS, 51.1 percent of the total population are below the poverty line. However, 20 percent have been still suffering from chronic poverty and they have not attained the subsistence level. The abysmally low consumption level of the vast majority of the people makes against labour productivity. It obstructs the growth of proper attitudes and efficiency to work. Increase in the consumption level is necessary to have a favourable effect on labour, productivity and hence total productivity in the country. In India, government and private final consumption level per head per annum is only Rs. 200 and Rs. 250 respectively which is the lowest among the countries of South Asia. There

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is greater inequality in quantity and quality of consumption level among different social classes in urban as well as rural areas. In rural areas, the inequality of income is related to land ownership, status authority and low per capita income. Inequality thus leads to social stratification in the rural areas.

Though, it is unwise to say that there has been no growth in India over the past decade, yet owing to the growing inflationary pressures, industrialists, big merchants, landlords, and particularly, richer class have been mainly benefitted from the increase in gross national income. Direct taxation and social security measures have also been adopted to remove the inequality in India but are too little to have any noticeable result.

Growing urbanization further contributes to the rural urban differentials in the consumption and wage levels. In essence, planning in our country has been ineffective and the correlation between economic development and social justice have become negative.

Further, labour resources in our country have not been utilized fully and there is both unemployment and partial unemployment in both the urban and rural areas.

Planning in our country should be the method of the best utilization of the whole manpower and distribution of raw products in five lakh odd villages instead of sending the raw products abroad. Purchasing of finished products from villages, must be the central aim of our planning, only then the basic problems of village economy can be solved. It is necessary to improve the productivity of village crafts and give them protection for some period. A dual economy consisting of an urban modernized large scale and small scale manufacturing sector and a rural technologically backward cottage industrial sector should be accepted as an ideal situation in country like India. This would be a realistic planning for development with social justice, and this is the planning consistent with Gandhian economic programme. Industrialization in the western countries was successful because it was based on colonial rule for many centuries. But the impact of industrialization in India was economic exploitation, commercialization of agriculture and social disintegration. This brought the inevitability of industrialization as a method of removing poverty. Therefore, the tenor and pattern of economic planning for an underdeveloped country like India must be necessarily different from that of a developed country.

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2. M. K. Gandhi, "Equal Distribution," **Sarvodaya**, XXV (May 1976), pp 354-57.
3. **Ibid.**
4. R. Padmanabhan, "Gandhiji's View on Machinery, Mass Production," **Modern Review** (February 1976), pp. 135-136.
5. **Ibid.**
6. **Harijan**, November 16, 1934.
7. **Young India**, November 13, 1924.

BHUPENDRA HOOJA

Land Use Pattern in Rajasthan : A Plea to Change the Priorities

If we look at the land use data of Rajasthan, the first thing that strikes us is that since 1955-56 (the first years for which reliable data are available), the percentage of net area sown has increased from 33.5 percent to nearly 45 percent. It was 44.5 percent in 1971-72 and 46.6 percent in 1973-74 (see table 1).

The increase in the net area sown has naturally resulted in a reduction in the percentage of fallow lands, which was 17.4 percent in 1955-56 and came down to 9.8 percent in 1973-74. There has also been a reduction in the area of culturable waste-land which was reduced from 21.6 percent in 1955-56 to 16.4 percent in 1973-74.

The area not available for cultivation has also gradually decreased from 19.1 percent in 1955-56 to 13.2 percent in 1976-77 though from 1965-66 until 1973-74, the percentage has been fluctuating between 17.4 percent to 17.8 percent.

The area under forests was 4.1 percent in 1955-56 and 2.4 percent in 1960-61. But then due to some re-classification and later on, due to slow though scattered efforts for afforestation, the area rose to 3.3 percent in 1965-66 and has been varying between 4.1 percent to 4.5 percent during the early seventies. In 1976-77, the area under forests was recorded to be 5.8 percent, which seems to be a remarkable achievement of efforts at afforestation.

Comparisons with All-India Pattern

If the data for Rajasthan are compared with the all-India figures, it can be seen that the percentage of net area sown has now more or less reached the all-India figure, which was 44.4 percent in 1955-56,

44.6 percent in 1960-61, and 45.6 percent in 1971-72. But the percentage of fallow lands is comparatively higher in Rajasthan, as also the percentage of cultrable waste-land excluding fallows. Another difference is in respect of the area under forests. While the all-India figure has risen from 17.4 percent in 1955-56 to 21.5 percent in 1971-72. In Rajasthan, the maximum achievement so far has been 5.8 percent.

Growing Pressure on Land

These statistics and trends also confirm that the pressure on land under cultivation has been steadily growing. In absolute terms, the area under plough has increased from 125.48 lakh hectares in 1955-56 to 178.86 lakh hectares in 1973-74. Every year, and with the passage of each five year plan, the cultivated area has been steadily increasing partly because of the growing population and the increasing land requirements and partly because of the incentives provided under the state policies for allotment of lands to the landless labourers, artisans, small and marginal farmers etc. In fact, the pressure on land and the impact of the state policies of land distribution have combined to encroach upon the areas which were once considered not available or not suitable for cultivation. Large tracts and scattered pieces of marginal and sub-marginal land and land having poor soil cover have also come under cultivation.

Changing Pattern of Ownership

Another notable development in Rajasthan has been with regard to the changes in the pattern of ownership.

So long as the rights of the tenants were not protected and the feudal or the 'jagirdari' system prevailed, it was not possible for the cultivators to make long-term development investments on the available land and water resource and the 'ryots' were subject to all kinds of exploitation.

Through the various measures for land reforms, including resumption of jagirs, a consistent effort has been made to vest the actual tillers of land with tenancy (ownership) rights and to abolish all sort of absentee landlords. Limits have also been placed on their rights to lease out or transfer their holdings. These measures have brought about a significant re-distribution of

agricultural land, some sort of stability in tenure, a sense of security for the tenant-cultivators and a climate of sustained growth in the agricultural sector which constitutes the core of Rajasthan's rural-oriented economy.

But it must be stated that in the absence of a suitable rate of savings or adequate credit facilities by financial institutions, and comparatively less public investments, particularly on the preservation and development of the productivity of land, much headway has yet to be made.

Development of Irrigation

One visible sign of the development efforts in the field of agriculture has been a phenomenal improvement in the facilities for irrigation.

Rajasthan has not been blessed with any perennial river. It cannot depend upon the resources of underground water also, because apart from the problem of depth, the quality of sub-soil water also is more or less brackish, at least over a large part of the State.

Before independence and before the start of the development programmes, some stray and scattered efforts had been made in some princely states to build tanks and dry spells.

At the time of the formation of Rajasthan, the area with assured irrigation facility was very much less as compared with the other States in the country. In 1956-57 when the all-India average was 18 percent, in Rajasthan, only 11 percent of the net area sown was irrigated.

Then came the era of planning and of big dreams. Rajasthan also went ahead with such major and multi-purpose projects as Bhakra and Rajasthan Canal Project, the Chambal Project, besides scores of other medium and minor projects. With the end of the Fifth Five Year Plan, it was expected that about 20 percent of the cropped area would be served with irrigation facilities of some sort or the other. We are slightly short of that target.

The irrigated area by different sources (not) has been 31.68 lakh hectares (canals 11.19 lakh ha, tanks 2.45 lakh ha, tube-wells and wells 17.33 lakh ha and other sources 0.71 lakh ha.) during 1977-78.

Changing Croppng Pattern

The spread of irrigation has also brought about a noticeable change in the cropping pattern and the resultant increase in the food-basket of the State. But this has taken considerable time. If we look at the statistics (table 2*), apparently the foodgrain crops continued to cover nearly 78 percent of the total cropped area until 1970; but in the subsequent years (1974-75 to 1976-77) this percentage has come down to 73.40. Among the foodgrains also, the percentage of rain-fed crops such as bajra, jawar and maize which can survive the harsh conditions of the desert and the arid or semi-arid zones, happens to be 23.4 percent, 4.8 percent and 4.5 percent respectively. More and more cultivated and irrigated area is now coming under rice, sugarcane ground nuts, cotton, oil-seeds and pulses, etc.

Different Zones

Rajasthan is a large state with diverse physiographic and agro-climatic conditions. The most important feature of Rajasthan's physical geography is the spread of the Aravali ranges which run diagonally from south to north (from Gujarat to Delhi) almost through the heart of the State. Nearly 60 percent of the land area lies to the west of the Aravali ranges where desert conditions prevail with extremes of temperatures and very low and often uncertain rain-fall. Eastern or south-eastern Rajasthan has fertile soils and reasonably good rain-fall, though once in three or four years, rains fail to serve these parts also. Experts have identified about half-a-dozen different agro-climatic zones in the State. If we further sub-divide them, the number of district sub-zones will increase to a little more than a dozen.

Priorities in Planning Area

To Stop the Spread of Desert

Against this background when we come to think of a proper or more scientific planning of available land and water resources in Rajasthan, the first programme which seems to take precedence over all the others is to prevent the spread of the desert conditions by providing proper vegetative cover in the western or north-western part of the State and to achieve some sort of equilibrium or balance between the pressure of the human and cattle population over the denuded waste-lands or expanding sand dunes. Sustained efforts for afforestation, development of pastures, controlled grazing and production of fodder crops deserve utmost attention in these areas.

* Extract from table 5, Vol. II of **Perspective Plan of Rajasthan**.

In fact, there is need to have similar programmes even in other parts of the State, where hills and forests are being continuously denuded or ravaged by increasing human and cattle pressure.

Measures against Erosion

Secondly, over the centuries and more recently during the so-called development decades, land resources have suffered a great deal because of over-exploitation, intensive cultivation or over-grazing, indiscriminate irrigation or use of chemical fertilizers to the exclusion of vegetative or organic manures, and also due to erosion by wind-storms or rains and the damage done by uncontrolled or unprecedented floods.

To prevent further damage through over-exploitation, we need to bring about and enforce greater discipline and more balanced use of all the inputs according to the most appropriate technology and scientific techniques.

To prevent erosion, widespread but sustained programmes of soil and water conservation, protection of the watershed as well as the catchments of river valleys have, therefore, assumed considerable importance and urgency. In certain areas along the river valleys, deep ravines have begun to spread. These need to be reclaimed and developed not so much for purpose of cultivation, but for providing the fodder and fuel needs of the local people.

Survey of Ground Water

There is also an urgent need to carry out a detailed survey of underground water resources. The Rajasthan Ground Water Board, the Central Underground Water Board and the Geological Survey of India have done some commendable pioneering work in this regard; but as yet the detailed surveys have not been completed in all parts of the State, and much more needs to be done before the ground water potential can be fully assessed and programme for its controlled scientific use is prepared.

Growing Crops which Require Less Water

Coming to the programmes of cultivated crops, it is felt that because of the peculiar agro-climatic and soil conditions of the State, perhaps there is not much scope in following the foot-steps of some of other

progressive and advanced States of the country, i. e., in going for crops like rice, sugarcane, cotton or even wheat. Instead, it is worth considering whether in Rajasthan, we should not concentrate on what are called the "coerice grains" or on the production of oil-seeds and pulses for which our soils are more suited and the requirements of irrigation water or rain-fall are also not as high as for some other commercial crops or the so-called "finer" foodgrains.

Fodder Crops in Dairy Areas

In any case, in those parts of the State where animal husbandary and dairying, sheep or goat-breeding constitute important activities allied to agriculture, it would be worth-while increasing the area under production of suitable fodder crops along with the development of pastures and the cultivation of nutritious grasses. The risk due to failure of rains for some of these crops is also much less.

Census of Land and Water Resources

These are some broad indications of the future programmes or perspectives. But before taking up these programmes, it is but essential that a sort of census should be conducted of the available land and water resources. It is also necessary that the proper and scientific use or management of the available resources or their potential should become an integral part of our thinking and the very basis of our effort for planning and development.

Unfortunately, over the years (during the so-called planning era), we have continued to think in terms of financial resources. How to raise plan resources? How to cut down non-plan expenditure? How to mobilise savings? Or increase State income from taxes, levies, excise duties etc? Our attention has shifted away from the available natural and material resources as well as the resources available in terms of manpower.

Once we start framing a programme linked with the development and proper management of available natural and physical resources, our priorities are likely to be different than what these are at present. We will then learn to develop the potentials which are available rather than distributing funds between one sector or the other to meet the so-called clamour of needs and demands.

Secondly, we will also have to think about the level; whether at the State level or the regional level or the block level or the village level at which a particular given resource such as agriculture lands, mineral quarries, forest crops or water resources can be developed and properly managed. Then we should think whether we have the necessary where-withal (facilities or resources) available at that level such as financial resources, skills, technology and other infrastructure necessary for development. If not, what resource needs and can be supplemented from outside, or from the next higher level in our politico-administrative set-up ?

We should also think in terms of developing the human resources and the human skills in keeping with the needs for the proper preservation and utilisation of the available natural resources, the gifts of productive land and water which nature has endowed upon us. That should also be the first objective of all our educational and vocational programmes at the grass-root level.

TABLE I
Land Use Pattern in Rajasthan and All-India

Category of Land	India					Rajasthan										
	55-56	60-61	65-66	71-72		55-56	60-61	65-66	71-72	72-73	73-74	76-77				
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12				
Area under forest	51,343 (17.6)	54,052 (18.1)	60,278 (19.7)	65,757 (21.5)		1,409 (4.1)	814 (2.4)	1,128 (3.3)	1,401 (4.1)	1,437 (4.2)	1,550 (4.5)	1,987 (5.8)				
Area not available for cultivation	48,396 (16.6)	50,751 (17.0)	50,247 (16.5)	45,757 (15.0)		6,533 (19.1)	6,218 (18.5)	6,035 (17.7)	6,051 (17.6)	6,096 (17.8)	5,955 (17.4)	4,499 (13.2)				
Other uncultivated land excluding fallows	39,895 (13.3)	37,637 (12.6)	36,220 (11.9)	33,450 (10.9)		8,805 (25.8)	8,541 (25.2)	8,310 (24.4)	7,926 (23.1)	7,688 (22.4)	7,453 (21.7)	8,434 (24.7)				
Of which																
culturable waste	21,537 (7.4)	19,212 (6.4)	17,180 (5.6)	15,949 (5.2)		7,369 (21.6)	6,841 (20.2)	6,476 (19.0)	6,112 (17.8)	5,880 (17.2)	5,637 (16.4)	6,607 (16.3)				
Fallow land	24,127 (8.3)	22,819 (7.7)	22,440 (7.3)	21,254 (7.0)		5,957 (17.4)	5,196 (15.1)	4,418 (13.0)	3,646 (10.9)	4,201 (12.3)	3,346 (9.8)	4,417 (12.3)				

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Net area sown	1,29,156 (44.4)	133,199 (44.6)	136,149 (44.6)	139,365 (45.6)	11,454 (33.5)	13,112 (38.8)	14,132 (41.5)	15,263 (44.5)	14,159 (43.3)	15,967 (46.6)	15,060 (44.0)
Total reporting area	2,91,917 (100)	298,458 (100)	305,334 (100)	305,503 (100)	34,158 (100)	33,841 (100)	34,023 (100)	34,287 (100)	34,281 (100)	34,271 (100)	391,197 (100)

NOTE : Figures in brackets indicate percentage to total reporting area.
Source : Table 4, **Perspective Plan of Rajasthan** (Vol. II).

TABLE 2
Percentage Distribution of Area Under Different Crops

Crop	1954-55 to 1956-57 *	1959-60 to 1961-62 *	1968-69 to 1970-71 *	1974-75 to 1976-77 *
1	2	3	4	5
1. Rice	0.59	0.69	0.80	0.90
2. Jowar	8.21	7.67	7.21	4.79
3. Bajra	26.73	29.67	30.98	23.43
4. Maize	4.14	4.45	5.16	4.48
5. Small millets	0.63	0.52	0.48	0.40
Kharif Cereals	40.30	43.00	44.63	34.00

Land use Pattern in Rajasthan

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	1	2	3	4
6. Wheat	9.00	8.21	8.57	10.09
7. Barley	4.39	3.65	3.30	4.38
Rabi cereals	13.39	11.79	11.87	14.37
Total Cereals	53.69	54.89	56.50	48.37
8. Gram	10.77	10.91	8.60	10.45
9. Tur	0.12	0.17	0.17	0.23
10. Other kharif pulses.	13.54	12.05	12.69	14.08
11. Other rabi pulses	0.09	0.12	0.13	0.17
Total pulses	24.52	23.25	21.59	24.93
Total food Grains	78.21	78.14	78.09	73.40

TABLE 2 (Contd.)

1	2	3	4	5
12. Groundnut	0.42	0.81	1.57	1.66
13. Sesamum	3.68	3.42	3.22	2.22
14. Rape and mustard	1.88	1.54	1.23	1.84
15. Cassorseed	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.02
16. Linseed	0.90	0.67	0.39	0.62
Total Oilseeds	6.90	6.45	6.42	6.42
17. Fibres	1.02	1.67	1.71	1.86
18. Sugarcane	0.21	0.23	0.28	0.27
19. Other crops	12.76	13.51	13.50	18.15
Total Non-Food	21.79	21.86	21.91	26.70
total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Based on average figures for the three years.

RAKESH HOOJA

Project Approach and Development Administration in India

The Viscount Concise Dictionary defines a project very loosely as "a plan, design, scheme." This looseness, or vagueness, in the defining of a project is also to be found amongst many administrators and even theoreticians of public administration.

Many people consider that a programme or scheme is broken up into projects on an area or sector basis for convenience in implementation. For example, A. P. Saxena writes: "Projects will be considered as a part of a larger programme and an agglomeration of programmes may eventually constitute a project."¹ Other persons at times even refer to a programme or scheme as project. For example, as part of the Small Farmers Development Agency (SFDA) Scheme (now merged into Integrated Rural Development Programme) we have separate "projects" for separate districts with Additional Collectors (Development)-cum-Project Directors placed in charge. On the other hand, a new Agriculture Extension Scheme covering 17 districts in Rajasthan is referred to as the New Agriculture Extension World Bank Project.

Administrative or Limited Definition

Most administrators have, however, accepted the concept as demonstrated in the example regarding SFDA projects above and feel that a number of projects are set up on an area basis for the better implementation of a scheme or programme. They thus consider a project to be

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"an organizational structure set up with a definite objective/objectives and a defined area for purpose of field level implementation of a scheme or programme." In other words, "a project is considered by them to be an administrative arrangement or agency, for delivering benefits/providing service to the people or executing development works within the framework of a scheme or programme."

If this definition of a project is accepted, then projects can be divided into two categories :

- Agency based on area approach, for example, Drought Prone Areas Programme (DPAP) and Desert Development Programme (DDP) Agencies which are called District Development Agencies (DDAs), or Command Area Development Programme Agencies which are called either Command Area Authorities (CCAs) or Command Area Development Agencies (CADAs). In each agency/project the work is such that the people, land etc. in the area can benefit as a whole (i.e., we may say that the benefit has been "broadcast" generally but not necessarily "aimed" at a specific "target").
- Agency based on target-group or beneficiary-group approach, for example, SFDA aimed at benefitting small farmers, marginal farmers and agricultural labour, or Tribal Area Development (TAD) Agencies aimed at benefitting the scheduled tribes. Such projects also have a defined area of operations, normally a district or a panchayat samiti.

It may, however, be cautioned that no such agency/project is purely either an area-oriented, or a target group-oriented one. Some mixture of both elements is to be found in each such agency/project, and the difference is only one of degree, i.e., which is more area-oriented, and which is more target group-oriented.

It may also be pointed out that recently much concern has been expressed at so many different agencies/projects being set up in rural areas, and thinking is reported to be going on about whether a multifunctionary agency/project cannot function as the single agency for all developmental [schemes/programmes in an area (i.e., district panchayat samiti/region).

As mentioned above, the use of the word "project" gives a very limited meaning to the word "project", and a better word to use would be "agency". However, the loose use of the word "project" in such a meaning has become very common.

Project Approach : Broader Definition of a Project

However, the technical definition of a project is much broader. A project is not only an administrative agency, or organisation. As J. Price Gittinger says: "The whole complex of activities involved in using resources to gain benefits constitutes a project." Similarly according to Collin Bruce: "Project planning is defined to include the whole cycle of project work: identification/selection, design/preparation, appraisal, implementation and monitoring/evaluation."² More than merely an implementation agency is thus involved in a project.

While the "project cycle" shall be discussed in detail later, it would be worthwhile to quote some extracts from Gittingers book :

- Projects are the cutting edge or development.
- Often, projects are the first, concrete portion of a larger, less precisely identified "programme." The whole programme, of course, could be subjected to analysis as a single project, but by and large it is better to keep projects rather small, close to the minimum size which is economically and technically feasible.
- All that we can say in general about a project is that it is "activity on which we will spend money in expectation of returns and which logically seems to lend itself to planning, financing and implementation as a unit. It is a specific activity with a specific starting point and a specific ending point intended to accomplish a specific objective. It is something too draw a boundary around atleast a conceptual boundary and say 'this is the project'. It is something which is measurable both in its major costs and returns. Normally it will have some geographic location or atleast a clearly understood area of geographic concentration. Perhaps it will have a specific clientele group which it is intended to reach. It will have a relatively well defined time sequence of investment and production activities. It will have a specific group of activities, which we want to finance and a group of benefits for which we can identify and estimate

value. Of ten it will have a partially or wholly independent administrative structure and set up of accounts."

Thus we can refer to a project approach as one of (i) identifying the costs (social and economic) of carrying out a particular development task in various alternative ways and comparing them with the economic and social benefits (to society; to groups within society, i.e., target groups; to geographical areas) that are likely to result from each alternative, as also of choosing one of the alternative methods of achieving the desired objectives; of (ii) calculating the likelihood of success in achieving the desired objectives; of (iii) identifying the resources (raw material, personnel, capital, machinery, organisational efficiency and special administrative structure, skills etc.) necessary for achieving the objective; and of (iv) executing the development task accordingly.

As Das Gupta and Pierce³ point out the following decisions have to be made before implementing a project: (i) accept/reject (i.e., the project worthwhile in itself even if no resource constraint exists), (ii) ranking (i.e., where resources are limited preference ranking according to objectives), and (iii) choosing between exclusive projects (i.e., choosing between alternative means of achieving the same, or similar, objectives).

II : THE PROJECT CYCLE

(a) The Basic Project Cycle

No two projects are alike. However, each passes through a cycle that, with some variations, is common to all.⁴ The stages in the project cycle are as follows :

1. **Identification of Project** : This involves the realisation normally after a consideration of alternative possibilities, that a particular developmental activity can be considered for taking up in a particular area.
2. **Project Preparation or Formulation** : This involves working out the details of the project proposal including the examination of technical, institutional, administrative or managerial, social, economic and financial aspects of the proposed project as regards the viability of the project.

3. Project Appraisal : This involves a comprehensive and systematic review of the viability of all aspects of the detailed project proposal. Appraisal is often done by a different agency than the agency that did project formulation, though this is not always the case.

4. Presenting Appraised Proposal to Sanctioning Authority, Negotiations and Sanctioning of Project:

5. Implementation and Supervision of Sanctioned Project.

The supervision mentioned here refers to supervision exercised by the sanctioning agency over the implementing agency. The self monitoring done by the implementing agency is treated as a part of implementation.

6. Project Evaluation : This involves identification of problems faced and the successes and failures of project implementation. The experiences gained as examined and reported in the evaluation report can form the basis for the identification, formulation or appraisal of some other new project or of a second phase of the same project, thus completing the project cycle.

A seventh stage of post implementation follow up can also be added by us the list.

(b) Variation in the Basic Project Cycle

It may also be pointed out that not all projects undergo all the above stages separately. Sometimes general guidelines, for project implementation of a particular scheme are laid down by a higher authority (i.e., Central Government or State Government) and those guidelines are uniformly applied to all projects or agencies running that scheme. In such a case the first four stages have been sort of merged into one stage and the issuing of guidelines and providing of finance corresponds to the stage of sanctioning of project (stage 4) after the entire scheme or programme has been formulated.

It is because of this tendency of telescoping of the first four stages into one by the Government of India especially for central sector or centrally sponsored schemes, like DRAP, SFDA, DDP, TAD that the

popular belief has emerged among laymen and field level functionaries, that the project approach chiefly refers to the project management aspect, or the stages of implementation and evaluation (stage 5 and 6) only.

Technical experts and economists, on the other hand, often tend to forget the problems of project management (stage 5 and 6) but tend to over emphasis the project formulation and appraisal parts (stages 1, 2, 3 and 4) of a project more than the other stages.

In some centrally sponsored or aided schemes, a mixture of the two approaches is adopted. This general scheme guidelines are formulated, and, within the framework of such guidelines (or parameters) projects are identified, prepared, appraised, negotiated and then sanctioned. One example of this are individual CAD projects, whose technical, social, economic, financial, administrative or managerial or institutional viability have to be proved before they are sanctioned, even though basic guidelines of the CAD programme exist. This, like the insistence on the need for viable block planning before Integrated Rural Development (IRD) Block Projects are sanctioned even though IRD guidelines exists, is different from SFDA, DPAP etc. where, on the basis of guidelines, administrative/executive decisions to set up SFDA/DPAP projects are taken without examining the viability of each project/project-agency separately though now for DPAP and DDP also the Government of India has decided to get items of work costing more than Rs. 5 lakhs examined before approval even though the work may be as per DPAP/DDP guidelines.

Operation Flood (Dairy Development) and the National Seeds Projects are other examples, where national level guidelines, or parameters, of the scheme are laid down, yet each particular project, or sub-project is examined as regards its viability separately.

III : PROJECT LIFE

At times administrators make the mistake of considering project life to be the period of implementation/construction only. Persons with banking background consider project life to include period of repayment of loans given to individual beneficiaries also in addition to project implementation period. Strictly speaking, however, the life of a project continues till such time as the benefits of the project continue to become available and thus automatically includes both the project implementation and repayment periods also.

For projects whose benefits may continue to accrue for even say a hundred years, the cut off point for analysis of benefits may be fixed arbitrarily at say fifty years, though now normally twenty or thirty years is the maximum period being analyzed.

Of course, for a project having a long implementation time, the project implementation may be broken up into a number of "phases" or sub-projects.

IV: WHO ARE RURAL DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS MADE FOR ?

The question arises as to who is the sanctioning authority for rural development project in India, because it is the sanctioning authority that shall have to be satisfied regarding the viability of a project.

In India, the more common sanctioning authorities for development projects are as follows :

1. International Agencies

- (a) World Bank
- (b) International Development Agency (IDA)
- (c) International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD)
- (d) Various foreign countries providing bilateral aid

All of them give loans to the Government of India, who, through State Governments, make available funds for project implementation. The State/Central Government has to contribute part of the required funds itself.

2. Agricultural Refinance and Development Corporation (ARDC)

This gives refinance facilities for specific schemes to commercial, or cooperative or regional rural banks who undertake loaning to individuals or groups of farmers within the project and for purposes specified in the project. The most popular ARDC projects among banks are minor irrigation projects for well digging or pump-set purchase loaning, and farm mechanisation projects for tractor purchase loaning, or projects for loaning for purchase of dairy and other animals. The ARDC itself is refinanced by the World Bank, IDA, IFAD and bilateral country aid from countries like Canada.

3. National Cooperative Development Corporation

It accepts project including for some infrastructural purposes from various cooperative bodies e.g., rural cooperative godowns, cooperative dairies and milk chilling plants, cooperative agro-based processing plants etc.

4. Rural Electrification Corporation (REC)

It functions through the various State Electricity Boards.

5. Government

(a) Government of India and its organs (e.g., Central Irrigation & Power Commission)

(b) State Governments

Though it must be pointed out that the government is often willing to forego the project approach and take administrative or executive decision about rural development work rather than base their decision on the examination of the viability of projects. This is especially true for individual beneficiary programmes aimed at eliminating poverty.

IV : PROJECT MANAGEMENT

In India, the special project organisations that are set up are all within, or closely integrated with, the framework of the existing district based officials machinery; be it the revenue administration or the officials attached to zila parishads or panchayat samitis. This is normally done by making the Collector, or Revenue Divisional Commissioner, or Chief Executive Officers/District Development Officers of zila parishads, or Vikas Adhikaris (Block Development Officers) of the panchayat samitis, members or chairman of the governing bodies of the project agencies. In addition, for many of their functions, the projects are authorised to use; and are dependent upon, the revenue patwaries, or the village level worker/village extension worker (gram sewak), for their contacts with farmers and villages.

Of course, the Project Managers usually have slightly more freedom of decision making and more flexible office procedures (especially financial procedures) than the regular district administration, or district level staff of regular government departments. They also normally have clearly defined single or related objectives, unlike the district or

panchayati raj based developmental agencies who are given multiple tasks to such an extent that they cannot concentrate their energies on any particular task. But they are not fully independent decision makers and have to refer a lot of matters to the government for decision. Similarly having a number of projects for different functions in an area may help each project agency to concentrate on its given task, but it may confuse the villagers in that area and require a lot of coordination amongst the agencies.

While the staffing pattern differs from project to project, each project in India is normally headed by an IAS/Provincial Civil Service (i. e., RAS in Rajasthan) Project Officer or Project Director who is assisted by technical staff—engineers, agronomists, veterinarians, co-operative or credit experts, economists (or more likely statisticians), experts in land revenue matters and agriculture extension, accountants, and supporting clerical staff who are all normally on deputation from concerned government departments to the project agency. The governing body of the project (which usually meets about once a quarter) normally has representatives from the State and Central Government, the District Collector, district level officers, representatives of the beneficiaries and the project officer/director as members. But major decisions are generally referred to the State/Central Government. The project agency also takes the assistance of regular departmental and district and/or panchayat staff for implementational purposes.

For evaluation purposes, most Indian States have a separate government evaluation department. In addition the Planning Commission also has a Programme Evaluation Organisation.

V : PROJECTS IN RAJASTHAN

In Rajasthan, an Agricultural Special Schemes Organisation (SSO) has been set up in the State Secretariat for purposes of project formulation. This organisation, headed by a Secretary for Special Schemes and Antyodaya, has experts in credit, agriculture, hydrology, engineering, livestock and fisheries management, power engineering, forestry, soil conservation, marketing, economics and rural development who are coordinated by a Deputy Secretary for the purposes of project formulation. These experts work jointly with officers of various government departmental while formulating projects. These officers also visit the field in teams for purposes of collecting data and

identifying, formulating and appraising projects. Recently the Special Schemes Organisation has also set up district planning cells attached to the SFDA's/DDA's in all the districts of Rajasthan to help in project formulation.

In the first eight years of its existence the SSO (till the end of 1979) had formulated a series of projects, details about which are given in the following table :

TABLE 1
Projects Formulated by SSO, Rajasthan

Type of Projects	Sanctioning Authority	Number
Minor Irrigation	ARDC	205
Cluster Tubewells	Coop/Commerical Bank	10
Field Channels	ARDC	44
Sprinker Irrigation	ARDC	1
Watershed Soil Conservation	Government of India (Under DPAP)	95
Soil Conservation	ARDC	4
Water Harvesting	ARDC & Government of India	5
Fruit Development	ARDC	19
Marketyards	ARDC	33
Bio-gas Plants	Government of India	1
Fisheries	Government of India, World Bank and NCDC	10
Forestry	Government of Rajasthan and ARDC	7
Dairy Development	IDA and ARDC	2
Sheep Development	State Government and Coop. Bank	2
Goat Development	ARDC	1
Camel Carts	ARDC	1
Antyodaya	ARDC	1
CAD Projects	World Bank	2
DPAP/DDP	IDA & Government of India	4
Tribal Development	Government of India & Banks	2
Farm Mechanisation	ARDC	2
S. m. gra Cram Vikas	Government of Rajasthan	1
Rural Growth Centres	Government of Rajasthan	1

This is just to give some idea of the type of schemes being formulated by SSO. Since the end of 1979, the formulation of UNICEF area development, modified area development, tribal mini-block, comprehensive block plan, block credit project, and pasture and migratory route development projects, have also been commenced by the SSO.

In addition, the SSO is also the secretariat administrative department that controls (with the help of a total of four Deputy Secretaries and one Secretary) the execution of SFDA, DDP, DPAP and IRD, Samagra Gram Vikas, Rural Growth Centres and Training of Rural Youth for Self Employment (TRYSEM), Bonded Labour and Antyodaya projects and programmes and loaning for marketyard projects (which are otherwise executed by Krishi Upaj Mandis). The UNICEF Integrated Area Development Projects shall also be got implemented by the SSO.

There are 16 SFDA agencies in Rajasthan covering 16 districts and ten DDAs for DPAP covering ten districts thus all the 26 districts are covered by either an SFDA or DDA. The SFDAs and DDAs are responsible for execution of SFDA, DDP, DPAP, IRD, Samagra Gram Vikas, Rural Growth Centres, Antyodaya, TRYSEM and tribal mini-block schemes with assistance from regular government departments. Subsidies for small and marginal farmers for ARDC schemes like minor irrigation, fruit development etc. which are run by the banks are also given by SFDAs/DDAs. Each SFDA/DDA is headed by the District Collector as Chairman and the Additional Collector (Development)-cum-Project Director as the Secretary & Chief Executive Officer. Work of the State Scheduled Castes Development Corporation is also likely to be partially implemented through the SFDAs/DDAs.

The two CAD projects, one TAD project, one agriculture extension project and one seed development project are, however, managed by other departments which form a part of the secretariat agriculture and allied activities group of departments which is headed by the Development Commissioner and Secretary for Development and Allied Agricultural Activities. The CAD and TAD projects in the field are headed by three different Area Development Commissioners to help the SSO coordinate DPAP and DDP execution.

VI : CATEGORIES OF PROJECT

Ways Weise, Albert Waterson and John Wilson⁵ have identified four major types of projects as under :

1. **Experimental Projects** are used to define problems regarding new approaches that have not been tried anywhere before so that suitable alternatives can be selected. They are primarily concerned with research and discoveries.
2. **Pilot Projects** in a way follow experimental projects to allow examination of the adaptability and suitability to local conditions of the new approach evolved through the experimental projects. They are primarily concerned with testing. Many United Nations Development Programmes (UNDP) projects are of this nature.
3. **Demonstration Projects** are intended to exhibit the new techniques, approaches and practices as discovered in experimental projects and tested in pilot projects in more and more areas.
4. **Production Projects** have the objective of raising productivity through improved better methods of production that have been discovered through experimental projects, tested through pilot projects and spread through demonstration projects.

While parts III and IV above pertain basically to production projects, part I, II and III above are equally applicable to experimental, pilot and demonstration projects. However, it may be pointed out that often there is a tendency to try and convert the first three types of projects into production projects at the earliest without necessarily being prepared for the change.

VII : PROJECT APPRAISAL

The ability to analyze a project and its viability, or to appraise it, is a key element of the project approach. As Warren C. Baum (in his above quoted article on "The World Bank Project Cycle") says: "it is a critical stage of the project cycle because it is the culmination of preparatory work, provides a comprehensive review of all aspects of the project, and lays the foundation for implementing the project and lays the foundation for implementing the project and evaluating it when completed." P. K. Mattoo⁶ similarly states that "project appraisal, in effect, comprises the appraisal of project objectives, project organisational, administrative, technical and managerial set-up, project demand potential, project technology, project design,

project time-profile, project non-recurring resource requirements, project financial viability, and project social cost benefit profile. Gittinger has suggested that technical, institutional-organisational-management, social, commercial, financial, and economic aspects need to be considered during appraisal.

Hence it would be appropriate to look at the process of appraisal in slightly greater detail.

Appraisal is normally done by the sanctioning body or by some other body acting as the agent of the sanctioning body.

Normally four types of appraisal are carried out as part of the project appraisal process. These are :

1. **Technical Appraisal** consists of ensuring that appropriate technical standards are being proposed for the project. It concerns itself with questions of physical scale, layout and location of facilities, the technology, equipment and processes to be used and their appropriateness for the area, the realism of the proposed implementation schedule, cost estimates and the trade off between initial construction costs and recurrent costs, as well as the trade off between labour intensive and capital intensive methods of construction or provision of services, the provisions proposed for physical contingencies or price escalation, the availability of raw materials and qualified personnel or other inputs required, and the possible ecological consequences of the project.

2. **Institutional Appraisal** looks into questions as to whether the project entity or agency is properly organized and provided with the management skills required, i.e., whether the administrative capability to execute the project exists or can be adequately built up as part of the project. It also examines the question of whether institutional or policy changes are required outside the project agency/area to achieve the project objectives.

3. **Economic Appraisal** aims at assessing the contribution of the project to the development objectives of the project area/target group (s)/society or the country at large. A number of alternatives may be considered for achieving the project objectives and the cost and benefits of each alternative in "real" or "shadow price" as opposed to "market price" terms are compared so that the optimal alternative

can be selected. Values have to be given to all the costs and returns from the project, whether they be material costs and benefits or social costs and benefits. Risk/probability analysis or examining the sensitivity of the project returns to changes in project implementation are also a part of the economic analysis.

4. Financial Appraisal examines the financing plan of the project to ensure that adequate fixed and working capital would be available and that the project will be able to generate resources sufficient to earn a reasonable return on its investments and also to meet debt and further investment requirements. Balance sheet, income and cash flow projections are examined, as is the accounting and financial control system, and the mechanism for raising and repaying funds.

Recently Praeger publishers have also advertised a book "The Cultural Appraisal of Developmental Projects" by Glynn Cochrane (May 1979) which the publishers say goes into aspects of whether or not the proposed beneficiaries of the project would find the project benefits meaningful. This suggests that a fifth type of appraisal—Cultural Appraisal—also should be carried out to ensure that a project is in tune with the culture of the people in the project area. If this is not done then (technical, institutional, economic and financial appraisal notwithstanding) if the project proves antagonistic to the culturally accepted practices of the area then it is likely to be rejected/opposed/ignored by the potential beneficiaries. Such a project should either not be sanctioned, or a separate mechanism to induce cultural acceptance of the project in the project area should be built into the project. cultural appraisal is thus inter-related with institutional appraisal.

While appraising a project one has to separately examine the positive and negative impacts on society as a whole (may be the national, the state, the regional or the local community), as well as on the implementing agency (i. e., a corporation), and on the target group. The costs and benefits from the point of view of the government may have to be separately examined in addition to be separately examined in addition to the above.

"Appraisal of projects differs according to the nature and objectives of projects" This can be demonstrated by examples. If it is a project for getting refinance from ARDC for banks who give loans to

small farmers than the analysis would be chiefly limited to whether the small farmer would be able to repay his loan to the bank and still experience a significant increase in his income due to the loan cum subsidy. If the project is aimed at raising select persons above the poverty line as in Samagra Gram Vikas then the analysis would be as to whether delivery or the benefit (s) would raise the per capita income of beneficiaries over a certain standard. If the project is an area based one then the internal rate of return of the project and its anticipated benefits for the area/country would be examined, as would the incremental benefit to various categories of inhabitants in the project area who are likely to be benefited by the project. Appraisal of a Rural Growth Centre project meant to provide facilities for the hinterland at a centre which may subsequently affect positively economic production or social development would be different from a direct economic development project, i. e., an irrigation or agriculture project.

However, for all sorts of project appraisals the general principle is to examine the situation before the proposal is proposed, and the year to year changes of situation if the project is implemented as compared to if it is not implemented, and then to compute the yearly difference in costs and benefits if the project is implemented and if it is not implemented. Such figures have to be discounted to give them standard present day values for purposes of decision making.

IX : SOME OTHER DEFINITIONS OF A PROJECT

In the end it would be appropriate to look at some more definitions/descriptions of a 'project'.

J. M. D. Little and J. A. Mirlees observe: "We mean by a project any scheme, or part of a scheme, for investing resources which can reasonably be analysed and evaluated as an independent unit. The definition is arbitrary. Almost any project could be broken down into parts for separate consideration; each of these parts would then by definition be a project."⁷

Albert O. Hirschmann states: "The development project is a special kind of investment. The term connotes purposefulness, some minimum size, a specific location, and the introduction of something qualitatively new and the expectation that a sequence of further development moves will be set in motion."⁸

A. P. Saxena has opined as follow :

(a) Very broadly, it can be stated that a project is an activity in which resources are committed in expectation of returns, and which logically seems to lend itself to planning, financing and implementation as a unit. It is a specific activity with a specific starting point and a specific terminal point intended to accomplish a specific objective. It is an entity which is measurable both in its major in-puts and out-puts. In some instances, it will have a specific beneficial group which is intended to be reached. In other cases, it will have relatively well-defined time-sequences of input and output activities. In yet other cases, it will involve specific group activities which will require commitment of resources leading to a stream of benefits which can be identified and even estimated.

(b) Projects are not ends in themselves, they are identifiable units of activity designed to achieve larger developmental goals. A development project can be defines as the total discrete endeavour to create through the provision of personnel equipments and/or capital funds a final result directly related to a discrete developmental programme.

(c) Common to projects, however, are a few characterisations. First, a project emphasises more immediate rather than more remote goals. A sense of urgency, either to meet the specific needs, and problems or to exploit opportunities that might be available at a given time, is the major impetus for a project. The project will thus aim at the marshalling of resources and devising of methods to achieve these specific goals. In other words, a project by definition is 'action-oriented'. Secondly, the substance of a project is non-repetitive. In the case of agricultural projects, this does not exclude that they can be replicated in other situations and locations as well. The kernel of the project conceived lies in its application to other than routine activities for purposes of emphasis and achievement. Thirdly, although a suggests specificity in its objective and modus operandi, in fact projects frequently imply a certain degree of uncertainty. In the course of implementation of a project, it may be discovered that the initial technical economical and administrative dimensions are not valid or adequate and have to be revised to assure optimization of project results.

P. K. Mattoo mentions :

(a) A project can be defined as a scientifically evolved work plan devised to achieve a specific objective within a specified period of time.....while projects can differ in size, nature, objectives and complexity, they must all partake of three basic attributes of being a course of action, of having specific objectives, and of involving a definite time perspective.

(b) From the point of view of resource allocation, a project can be considered as a proposal involving capacity investment for the purpose of developing facilities to provide goods or services.

(c) Project formulation is the process of presenting a project idea in a form in which it can be subjected to comparative appraisal for the purpose of determining in definitive terms the priority which the project should receive during the course of resource allocation under considerations of severe constraint on resource availability.

NOTES

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3. Ajit Dasgupta and D. S. Pierce, **Cost Benefit Analysis : Theory and Practice** (London : Macmillan, 1972).
4. Warren C. Baum, "The World Bank Project Cycle", **Finance and Development**, December 1978.
5. Wayne Weise, Albert Waterson and John Wilson, **Managing Planned Agricultural Development** (Washington : Government Affairs Institute, 1976).

6. P. K. Mattoo, **Project Formulation in Developing Countries** (London : Macmillan, 1979).
7. J. M. D. Little and J. A. Mirlees, **Project Appraisal and Planning for Developing Countries**, 1974. Also see ESCAP, United Nations, **Rural Development Administration in India : Some Emerging Policy Issues**, 1979; FAO, United Nations, **Guidelines for Preparation of Agriculture Projects**, 1977; and Hugh B. Ripman, "Project Appraisal", **Finance and Development**, December 1964.
8. Albert O. Hirschmann, **Development Projects Observed** (Washington : Brookings Institution, 1967).

बाबूलाल फड़िया

अखिल भारतीय सेवाएं और भारतीय संघवाद

आज के युग में लोक सेवाओं का बहुत अधिक महत्व है। ज्यों-ज्यों राज्य के कार्य बढ़ते जा रहे हैं, त्यों-त्यों सिविल सेवा का योग एवं महत्व भी बढ़ता जा रहा है। एक समय था जब सरकारें ग्रहस्तक्षेप नीति में विश्वास करती थी। उन दिनों राज्य का कार्यक्षेत्र देश में शान्ति तथा व्यवस्था बनाये रखने तक ही सीमित था। अतः लोक कर्मचारियों के कार्य भी इन संकुचित उद्देश्यों की पूर्ति तक ही सीमित थे। परन्तु विज्ञान तथा तकनीकी के क्षेत्र में अत्यधिक प्रगति होने तथा समाजवादी विचारधारा अपनाये जाने से राज्य के कार्यक्षेत्र का असाधारण रूप से विस्तार हुआ है। आज नागरिक जीवन का कोई भी पहलू राज्य के प्रभाव, अधिकार-क्षेत्र और शक्तियों के बाहर नहीं है। राज्य लोक कर्मचारियों के माध्यम से ही अपने बढ़े हुए उत्तरदायित्वों को निभाता है। अतः प्रशासन के क्षेत्र में कर्मचारी वर्ग का महत्व अत्यधिक बढ़ गया है। देश का वर्तमान तथा भविष्य सेवीवर्ग पर ही निर्भर करता है। इसी कारण फाईनर ने कहा है : “लोक प्रशासन में सेवीवर्ग को ही सर्वोच्च तत्व माना जाता है।” फिफनर के अनुसार सेवी-वर्ग को “प्रशासन की आधारशिला” कहा जा सकता है।

अखिल भारतीय सेवाएं : ब्रिटिश विरासत

भारत के संदर्भ में लोक सेवाओं का विकास एक ओपनिवेशिक शासन की समस्याओं और सीमाओं की अपनी कहानी है। अंग्रेजी शासन जिसे जिला स्तर तक संगठित लोक सेवाएं मुगल काल से विरासत में मिली थी, ढांचे में कोई मौलिक परिवर्तन करना नहीं चाहता था। फिर भी ब्रिटिश शासनकाल में भारतीय प्रशासनिक सेवाएं बहुत ही अधिक तीव्र गति से बदली और विकसित हुई हैं।¹ इसका प्रमुख कारण यह माना जा सकता है कि ब्रिटिश शासन ने साम्राज्यवाद तथा प्रशासनिक सुधार दोनों ही दृष्टियों से भारतीय लोक सेवाओं को एक प्रमुख क्षेत्र माना था। मैकाले, इस्लिगटन तथा ली फार्नहाम आदि प्रसिद्ध अंग्रेजों ने भारत की प्रशासनिक सेवाओं को एक विशिष्ट ढांचे के लिए गम्भीर प्रयत्न किये और आज भी भारतीय प्रशासन में जिस अखिल भारतीय सामान्य सेवाओं का वर्चस्व है, वह इन्हीं महानुभावों की बौद्धिक परिकल्पना का परिणाम है। लम्बे विकास ने इन सेवाओं को अनाम-बेनाम, तटस्थ एवं स्वामिभक्ति की विशेषताओं से सुदृढ़ बनाया है तथापि जिन सिद्धांतों पर इनका आकस्मिक गठन हुआ था उन्हें ऐतिहासिक विकास के संदर्भ में साम्राज्यवादी परिस्थितियों का परिणाम कहा जाना अत्युक्ति नहीं होगी।

प्रशासनिका, खण्ड 9 अंक 1-2, जनवरी-जून 1980

अखिल भारतीय सेवाएं : अभिप्राय

भारतीय संविधान के अन्तर्गत केन्द्रीय सरकार तथा घटक राज्यों के प्रशासन के लिए पृथक-पृथक लोक सेवाओं के प्रावधान किये गए हैं। केन्द्रीय सेवाओं के कर्मचारी प्रतिरक्षा, आयकर, सीमाशुल्क, डाक-तार, रेलवे आदि संघीय विषयों के प्रशासन का कार्य करते हैं। इसी प्रकार राज्यों की अपनी पृथक तथा स्वतन्त्र सेवाएं हैं जो भू-राजस्व, कृषि शिक्षा, स्वास्थ्य, वन इत्यादि राज्य सूचि सम्बन्धी विषयों का प्रशासन करती है। केन्द्रीय सेवाओं के पदाधिकारी पृथक रूप से केन्द्रीय सरकार के कर्मचारी होते हैं और राज्य सेवाओं के अधिकारी पृथक रूप से विभिन्न राज्य सरकारों की सेवा में कार्य करते हैं। भारतीय प्रशासनिक प्रणाली की एक अन्य विशेषता यह है कि कुछ सेवाएं संघ तथा राज्य दोनों के लिए सामान्य रूप से संगठित की गयी हैं, जैसे अखिल भारतीय सेवाएं। इस प्रकार का सेवी वर्ग संगठन कदाचित् पाकिस्तान को छोड़कर अन्यत्र कहीं नहीं है। ये अधिकारी पूर्णतः केन्द्रीय अथवा राज्यों की सेवाओं में नहीं होते अपितु दोनों में से किसी एक के अन्तर्गत विभिन्न समयों पर कार्य करते हैं। इन सेवाओं की भर्ती समान अर्हताओं तथा वेतनमान और अखिल भारतीय आधार पर ही की जाती है। यद्यपि राज्यों में उनको विभाजित किया जाता है लेकिन हर सेवा अपने में एक सेवा होती है। इनकी एक समान प्रतिष्ठा होती है और अधिकार तथा पारिश्रमिक स्तर भी एक समान होता है।²

संविधान के भीतर अखिल भारतीय सेवाओं का प्रावधान किया गया है।³ विशेष रूप से भारतीय प्रशासनिक सेवा तथा भारतीय पुलिस सेवा का संविधान में उल्लेख किया गया है और उन्हें जारी रखा गया है, तथा संसद को यह सत्ता दी गयी है कि वह विधि द्वारा अन्य सेवाओं की स्थापना कर सके। अखिल भारतीय सेवाओं की स्थापना करने के लिए विधि पारित होने के पहले यह आवश्यक है कि राज्य सभा अपने दो-तिहाई बहुमत से एक प्रस्ताव पारित करके यह घोषणा करे कि इस प्रकार की सेवा की स्थापना आवश्यक है। इस विषय में राज्यों से भी परामर्श किया जा सकता है। सन् 1951 के अखिल भारतीय सेवा अधिनियम में यह व्यवस्था की गई है कि भारत सरकार को यह वैधानिक अधिकार होगा कि वह राज्य सरकारों से परामर्श करके उन व्यक्तियों की भर्ती तथा सेवा की दशाओं का नियमन करे जो अखिल भारतीय सेवाओं में नियुक्त किये जाते हैं।

भारतीय प्रशासनिक सेवा और भारतीय पुलिस सेवा के अतिरिक्त भारतीय अर्थ सेवा/ भारतीय सांख्यिकी सेवा, भारतीय वन सेवा, भारतीय इंजीनियर सेवा, भारतीय चिकित्सा एवं स्वास्थ्य सेवा आदि अखिल भारतीय सेवाएं हैं। भारतीय अर्थ सेवा तथा भारतीय सांख्यिकी सेवा का गठन 1961 में किया गया था, क्योंकि कुछ पदों पर अर्थशास्त्र तथा सांख्यिकी के विशिष्ट ज्ञान की आवश्यकता होती है। सन् 1963 में तीन नई अखिल भारतीय सेवाओं के गठन का निर्णय किया गया था : भारतीय वन सेवा, भारतीय

इंजीनियर सेवा तथा भारतीय चिकित्सा एवं स्वास्थ्य सेवा। इनके अतिरिक्त, कतिपय अन्य सेवाओं, जैसे भारतीय शिक्षा सेवा, भारतीय कृषि सेवा, भारतीय वाणिज्य सेवा आदि की स्थापना के बारे में भी प्रस्ताव रखे जाते रहे हैं।⁴

अखिल भारतीय सेवाओं के अधिकारियों की भर्ती संघीय लोक सेवा आयोग द्वारा की जाती है और इन्हें भारत या भारत के बाहर कहीं भी काम करने के लिए भेजा जा सकता है। व्यवस्था यह है कि भारतीय प्रशासन और पुलिस सेवाओं के अधिकार एक निर्धारित कोटे के आधार पर विभिन्न राज्यों को बांट दिये जाते हैं।

भारतीय संघवाद के परिप्रेक्ष्य में अखिल भारतीय सेवाएं

संघवाद वह यंत्र है जिसके द्वारा सारी शक्तियों का विभाजन दो प्रकार की सरकारों के मध्य हो जाता है। ये दो प्रकारें केन्द्रीय और राज्यों की सरकारों के रूप में होती हैं। संघीय सरकार की परिभाषा करते हुये फाइनर ने कहा है कि यह एक शासन है जिसमें सत्ता और शक्ति का एक भाग स्थानीय क्षेत्रों में निहित होता है और दूसरा भाग केन्द्रीय संस्था में। डायसी के अनुसार, संघीय राज्य एक ऐसी राजनीतिक रचना है जिसमें राष्ट्रीय एकता और शक्ति तथा प्रदेशों के अधिकारों की रक्षा करते हुए दोनों में सामंजस्य स्थापित किया जाता है।⁵ गार्नर के कथनानुसार, ऐसी शासन प्रणालियों में केन्द्रीय और स्थानीय संगठन एक प्रभुसत्ता के अन्तर्गत स्थित होते हैं और ये दोनों प्रकार की सरकारें अपने निश्चित अधिकार क्षेत्र की सीमाओं में जो सामान्य संविधान द्वारा निर्धारित की गई हैं, सर्वोपरि होती हैं। वस्तुतः संघवाद का सिद्धांत सीमांत सरकार के सिद्धांत से सम्बन्धित है। संघवाद का मूल शक्ति के विभाजन में निहित है। के. सी. व्हीयर के अनुसार, 'संघीय सिद्धांत से मेरा तात्पर्य शक्ति के विभाजन के तरीके से है जिससे सामान्य (संघीय) एवं क्षेत्राधिकारी (राज्यों) सरकारें अपने क्षेत्र से समान एवं पृथक् होती हैं।

हमारे संविधान निर्माताओं का लक्ष्य एक विशिष्ट संघीय व्यवस्था की स्थापना करना था। भारत में संघ का गठन उस लम्बी ऐतिहासिक प्रक्रिया की परिणति है जिसका आरम्भ अंग्रेजी शासन काल में हुआ था। माले-मिण्टो सुधार, माण्टफोर्ड सुधार, साइमन आयोग प्रतिवेदन, नेहरू प्रतिवेदन तथा 1935 का अधिनियम संघीय प्रक्रिया के विकास के प्रारम्भिक चरण थे। डा. अम्बेडकर ने संविधान निर्मात्री सभा में संविधान के स्वरूप को संघात्मक बताते हुए कहा था : 'यह एक संघीय संविधान है... केन्द्र तथा राज्य दोनों का गठन संविधान द्वारा हुआ है। अपने क्षेत्राधिकार में कोई किसी के अधीन नहीं है। एक का अधिकार दूसरे का पूरक है। संघवाद का मुख्य गुण संविधान द्वारा केन्द्र और राज्य के बीच व्यवस्थापिका और कार्यपालिका की शक्तियों के वितरण में निहित होता है। हमारे संविधान में इसी गुण का निरूपण किया गया है। अतः यह कहना असत्य है कि राज्यों को केन्द्र के अधीन रखा गया है।'⁶

संविधान निर्माता भारत में संघ व्यवस्था की स्थापना करना चाहते थे किन्तु संविधान में विद्यमान 0. कतिपय प्रावधानों से संघ व्यवस्था के स्वरूप एवं कार्यप्रणाली को

अत्यधिक प्रभावित किया है। इन प्रावधानों में अखिल भारतीय सेवाओं से सम्बन्धित प्रावधानों का प्रभाव विशेष रूप से विचारणीय है। अखिल भारतीय सेवाओं के स्थापन और नियमन के सम्बन्ध में सांविधानिक दृष्टि से जिस तरह केन्द्रीय सरकार को उत्तरदायी बनाया गया है उससे यह इंगित होता है कि संविधान निर्माताओं द्वारा उन्हें राज्य स्वायत्तता के संघीय सिद्धांत के विरुद्ध केन्द्रवाद के एक सुदृढ़ आधार स्तम्भ के रूप में स्थापित किया गया है। अखिल भारतीय सेवाओं का अब तक का इतिहास भी इस बात का साक्ष्य है कि संविधान निर्माताओं द्वारा सौंपा गया इस केन्द्रवादी भूमिका को उन्होंने कुशलता पूर्वक निभाया है। इससे भारतीय संघ व्यवस्था में न केवल एकात्मकता की प्रवृत्ति सुदृढ़ हुई बल्कि राज्यों की स्वायत्तता भी प्रभावित हुई है।

यहां यह विचारणीय प्रश्न है कि भारतीय संविधान निर्माताओं द्वारा ऐसी केन्द्रीकृत अखिल भारतीय सेवाओं की व्यवस्था क्यों की गई, जिसका अनिवार्य परिणाम केन्द्र की सुदृढ़ता और उसकी तुलना में राज्यों की दुर्बलता प्रगट होती है? ब्रिटिश शासनकाल में अखिल भारतीय सेवाओं की स्थापना औपनिवेशिक प्रशासन को एक सुदृढ़ ढांचा प्रदान करने के लिए की गयी, परन्तु उसे स्वतंत्रता के बाद भी निम्न कारणों से बनाये रखना आवश्यक माना गया : प्रथम, अखिल भारतीय सेवाएं राज्यों के संकीर्ण दृष्टिकोण के स्थान पर देश में एकता और अखण्डता की स्थापना करती है। इन सेवाओं के अधिकारी प्रायः अपने राज्यों से बाहर नियुक्त किये जाते हैं तथा वे अपने स्थानीय अधिकारियों की अपेक्षा स्थानीय और प्रादेशिक प्रभावों से कम प्रभावित होते हैं। द्वितीय, इन सेवाओं के अधिकारी केन्द्र और राज्य सेवाओं के मध्य अदलते-बदलते रहते हैं, जिसके कारण दोनों में समन्वय की स्थापना होती है।⁷ तृतीय, इन सेवाओं के सदस्यों की भर्ती एक विस्तृत क्षेत्र से की जाती है और उन्हें उच्च वेतन, तथा स्तर प्राप्त होते हैं। इस कारण, इन सेवाओं में राज्य सेवाओं की अपेक्षा अधिक योग्य उम्मीदवार आकर्षित होते हैं। चतुर्थ, अखिल भारतीय सेवाओं के सदस्य राज्य सेवाओं में महत्वपूर्ण पदों पर कार्य करते हैं, अतः वे राज्य मंत्रियों को स्वतंत्रतापूर्वक परामर्श दे सकते हैं, जबकि राज्य सेवाओं के सदस्य मंत्रियों के सामने उतनी निर्भयता के साथ नहीं बोल सकते। पंचम, सामान्य सांविधानिक तंत्र के भंग होने पर हर राज्य प्रशासन का उत्तरदायित्व राष्ट्रपति पर होता है। अतः राज्यों में एक निश्चित संस्था में अखिल भारतीय सेवा के पदाधिकारियों के प्रशासन के महत्वपूर्ण पदों पर नियुक्तियां निश्चय ही राष्ट्रपति के लिए सहायक सिद्ध हो सकती हैं। वह राज्य सरकार के अधिकारियों की अपेक्षा इन पदाधिकारियों के सहयोग पर अधिक निर्भर रह सकता है, जो अन्तिम रूप से संघीय सरकार के कर्मचारी हैं।⁸

संपूर्ण देश के प्रशासन में समता और एकरूपता उत्पन्न करने और सामान्य मापदण्डों की स्थापना करने की दृष्टि से निश्चित रूप से अखिल भारतीय सेवाओं का महत्व है। ए. डी. गोरवाला के शब्दों में : "राष्ट्रीय एकता की स्थापना में यह (सेवा) एक मूल्यवान योगदान सिद्ध होगी।" हम भारतीय इतने भाग्यशाली हैं कि यदि हम चाहें तो इस प्रयोग को एक बड़े पैमाने पर कार्यान्वित कर सकते हैं। विप्लवकारी प्रवृत्तियों को

सफलतापूर्वक रोक कर एकरूपता स्थापित कर सकते हैं।”⁹ एम. वी. माथुर लिखते हैं : “जब वास्तव में निर्णायक घड़ी उपस्थित होती है तो सिर्फ आई.ए.एस. और आई.पी.एस. ही मुक्तिदाता नजर आते हैं। आज जबकि हमारे देश में केन्द्र-राज्य सम्बन्ध एक तनाव की स्थिति में से गुजर रहे हैं—तब मेरा मानना यही है कि जो राज्य आर्थिक दृष्टि से जितने पिछड़े रहे हैं, उन्हें उतने ही सुदृढ़ प्रशासन की आवश्यकता है तथा ऐसी स्थिति में अखिल भारतीय सेवाओं की अपरिहार्यता को नकारा नहीं जा सकता है।”¹⁰ एम. आर. पलांदे का कथन है : “अन्य संघात्मक संविधानों के देखकर उन्होंने (संविधान निर्माताओं ने) यह अनुभव किया कि अखिल भारतीय लोक सेवाओं की यह केन्द्रीकृत व्यवस्था हमारे संघात्मक ढांचे को अन्य संघात्मक ढांचों की तुलना में अधिक एकतावद्ध और सुदृढ़ बनायेगी जिसकी कि तत्कालीन समय से देश में विद्यमान अस्थिर परिस्थितियों में नितांत आवश्यकता थी।”¹¹ एम. वी. पायली भी इसी तर्क का समर्थन करते हुए लिखते हैं : “सम्भवतः अखिल भारतीय सेवाएं भारत के समेकन एवं एकता की प्राप्ति के उपकरण हैं। वे शासन के कुछ महत्वपूर्ण क्षेत्रों में देश भर में एक ही प्रतिमान स्थापित करने में सहायक होती है। इन सेवाओं के द्वारा कुछ ऐसे दृढ़ विचारों वाले प्राधिकारी राज्यों में आ जाते हैं जो केन्द्र के क्षेत्राधिकार में आने वाली सेवा के सदस्य होने के कारण निर्भीक होकर राष्ट्र के हित को दृष्टिगत रखते हुए स्वतंत्रतापूर्वक कार्य करें। देश की एकता बनाये रखने का यह अत्यन्त शक्तिशाली उपकरण है।”¹²

राष्ट्रीय एकता की दृष्टि से अखिल भारतीय सेवाओं का चाहे कितना ही समर्थन किया जाये, किंतु इनके अस्तित्व से हमारा ‘संघीय-प्रतिमान’ बहुत अधिक प्रभावित हुआ है। यह सच है कि इन सेवाओं की वजह से सारे देश में आज हमें ऊपर से लगा कर नीचे तक एकरूपता के दर्शन होते हैं। लेकिन इस एकरूपता को प्राप्त करने के लिये बहुत बड़ा मूल्य चुकाया गया है। इसी कारण इन सेवाओं को जारी रखने के विरोध में पश्चिम बंगाल के मुख्यमंत्री ज्योति बसु, श्रीराम माहेश्वरी तथा राजमन्नार समिति ने ठोस तर्क प्रस्तुत किए हैं। संघात्मकता की दृष्टि से इन सेवाओं की निरन्तरता के विरोध में प्रस्तुत किये जाने वाले प्रमुख तर्क इस प्रकार हैं : प्रथम, अखिल भारतीय सेवाएं हमारे देश के संविधान के संघात्मक सिद्धान्त का उल्लंघन करती हैं। वे राज्यों की स्वायत्तता पर आघात करती हैं। केन्द्रीकृत लोक सेवाओं के माध्यम से राज्य स्वायत्तता के उस क्षेत्र का भी अतिक्रमण हुआ है जो कि शुद्ध रूप से राज्यों के क्षेत्राधिकार में आता है। इस कारण से आज राज्य स्वायत्तता की स्थिति अत्यधिक सीमित और प्रभावहीन बन गई है और सांविधानिक दृष्टि से राज्यों के क्षेत्राधिकार में आने वाले मामलों में भी वह अत्यधिक कमजोर होकर केन्द्र पर निर्भरता की स्थिति में परिवर्तित हो गई है।¹³ द्वितीय, अखिल भारतीय सेवाएं कार्य तो राज्यों में करती हैं, परन्तु उनकी और उनका प्रशिक्षण केन्द्रीय सरकार द्वारा किया जाता है और वही इन सेवाओं का राज्यवार वितरण करती है और उनको अपने नियंत्रण में रखती है जिसके कारण राज्यों की सरकारें और मंत्री उनको अपने नियंत्रण में नहीं रख पाते। यदि राज्य की सेवाएं मंत्री के नियंत्रण में नहीं हो तो मंत्रीमंडल के उत्तरदायित्व के सिद्धान्त को आघात लगता है। मंदडा कांड में न्यायमूर्ति खगला ने कहा था कि मंत्री लोग लोक सेवकों के कार्यों के लिए उत्तरदायी होते हैं।

परंतु प्रश्न यह उठता है कि वे उन लोक सेवकों के कार्यों का दायित्व किस प्रकार ले सकते हैं, जो उनके नियंत्रण में ही न हों? यही कारण है कि जब कभी कोई अखिल भारतीय सेवा स्थापित करने का प्रश्न उठता है तो राज्य सरकारें उनका स्वागत नहीं करती। तृतीय, अखिल भारतीय सेवाओं का विरोध क्षेत्रीय निष्ठाओं के आधार पर भी किया जा सकता है। कुछ राज्यों को अखिल भारतीय सेवाओं में बहुत अधिक स्थान प्राप्त हो जाते हैं और दूसरों को उनका उचित भाग भी नहीं मिल पाता। चतुर्थ, यह भी कहा जाता है कि राज्य के बाहर से आने वाले अधिकारी उन लोगों की भाषा और उनके वातावरण से परिचित नहीं होते, जिनके बीच में उन्हें रहना और कार्य करना होता है। अतः वे न तो उनकी समस्याओं को ही समझ पाते हैं और न उनका सहयोग ही प्राप्त कर पाते हैं। अतः यह मांग की जाती है कि किसी राज्य के भीतर नियुक्त किये जाने वाले अधिकारी उसी राज्य के निवासी होने चाहिये।

श्रीराम माहेश्वरी ने लिखा है कि अखिल भारतीय सेवाएं संघात्मकता के प्रतिकूल हैं और राज्य सरकारों का इन सेवाओं में विश्वास विकसित नहीं हो सकता। भारतीय संविधान दोहरे शासन तंत्र की स्थापना करता है। अतः दो प्रकार की लोक सेवाएं ही उपयुक्त हैं।¹⁴ वामपंथी और प्रादेशिक दलों में शासित राज्य सरकारों की दृष्टि में अखिल भारतीय सेवाएं संदेहास्पद बनती जा रही है। केरल के भूतपूर्व मुख्यमंत्री ई. एम. एस. नम्बूद्रीपाद ने इन सेवाओं के औचित्य के संबंध में सवाल उठाते हुए कहा था कि केन्द्र की कांग्रेसी सरकार अखिल भारतीय सेवाओं की भर्ती और प्रशिक्षण की व्यवस्था करती है और फिर इन्हें राज्यों में भेज देती है जहां गैर-कांग्रेसी सरकारों का शासन है, ऐसी स्थिति में क्या ये सेवाएं उसी रूप में प्रादेशिक और वामपंथी दलों की नीतियों को भी क्रियान्वित करने में सक्षम सिद्ध होंगी, जिस तरह से वे अब तक कांग्रेसी सरकारों की नीतियों को भी कार्यान्वित करती आ रही थी।¹⁵ सन् 1969 के पश्चिम बंगाल विधान सभा मध्यावधि चुनाव में संयुक्त मोर्चे ने जिस 32 सूत्री कार्यक्रम के आधार पर चुनाव लड़ा था उसमें एक सूत्र यह भी था कि राज्य में कार्यरत लोक सेवा के सभी अधिकारियों पर राज्य सभा का नियंत्रण होगा तात्कालिक मुख्यमंत्री अजय मुखर्जी ने तो यहां तक कहा कि “अखिल भारतीय सेवा के अधिकारी राज्य के लिए काफी महंगे पड़ते हैं और इन सेवाओं को धीरे-धीरे लुप्त हो जाना चाहिए।¹⁶ सितम्बर 1970 में डी. एम. के. ने मद्रास में एक “राज्य स्वायत्त शासन सम्मेलन” आयोजित किया और मुख्यमंत्री करुणानिधि ने अखिल भारतीय सेवाओं पर राज्य सरकार ने प्रभावपूर्ण नियंत्रण की आवश्यकता का प्रतिपादन किया। यह उल्लेखनीय है कि राज्य सभा ने 1963 में भारतीय शिक्षा सेवा तथा भारतीय कृषि सेवा जैसी नई अखिल भारतीय सेवाओं के गठन हेतु एक प्रस्ताव पारित किया था किन्तु राज्य सरकारों के अनवरत विरोध के कारण अब तक इस प्रस्ताव का क्रियान्वयन नहीं किया गया और आगे भी क्रियान्वयन का विचार त्याग दिया गया है।¹⁷

1970 में तामिलनाडु सरकार ने पी. वी. राजमन्नार के नेतृत्व में केन्द्र-राज्य सम्बन्धों के प्रश्नों की जांच करने और भारतीय प्रजातन्त्र को और अधिक मजबूत करने के

लिए एक तीन सदस्यों का आयोग नियुक्त किया। राजमन्मार प्रतिवेदन में पूरा एक अध्याय लोक सेवाओं की भूमिका का विश्लेषण प्रस्तुत करना है तथा अखिल भारतीय सेवाओं को संघवाद की कसौटी पर परखने का प्रयत्न किया गया है। संविधान के अनुच्छेद 312 को संघीय भावना के अनुकूल न मानते हुये कहा गया कि यह एक विडम्बना है कि नई अखिल भारतीय सेवाओं का गठन करते समय राज्यों से परामर्श लेने जैसी कोई व्यवस्था नहीं की गयी है। अतः अनुच्छेद 312 में संशोधन किया जाना चाहिए और अखिल भारतीय सेवाओं में भर्ती संघ लोक सेवा आयोग द्वारा न की जाकर राज्य सेवाओं के राजपत्रित अधिकारियों को निश्चित कोटे और अनुपात में अखिल भारतीय सेवाओं में स्थानान्तरित करके की जानी चाहिए।

पश्चिमी बंगाल की वामपंथी सरकार ने राज्य स्वायत्तता का एक विस्तृत मसविदा तैयार करके¹⁸ प्रशासनिक क्षेत्र में मांग की कि राज्य के सभी कर्मचारी राज्य सरकार के अधीन हों। राज्य में आई. ए. एस. और आई. पी. एस. नहीं हों तथा ये पद समाप्त किये जाने चाहिये। पश्चिमी बंगाल की इस मांग की अभिव्यक्ति जम्मू-कश्मीर के मुख्यमंत्री शेख अब्दुल्ला के इस वक्तव्य में साफ झलकती है कि राज्य से बाहर के लोगों को सरकारी सेवा में कोई स्थान नहीं दिया जाएगा और जो आई. ए. एस. और आई. पी. एस. अधिकारी राज्य की सरकारी सेवा में हैं उन्हें केन्द्र को लौटा दिया जाएगा।¹⁹

1967 के बाद राज्यों द्वारा नई अखिल भारतीय सेवाओं के गठन का विरोध किया गया। कुछ गैर कांग्रेसी सरकारों ने कहा कि अखिल भारतीय सेवाओं के कर्मचारी केन्द्र सरकार के एजेंट होते हैं तथा वे राज्य की नीतियों को ठीक ढंग से लागू नहीं करते। राज्यों का यह विरोध किसी निष्पक्ष आंकलन पर आधारित न होकर इस भावना पर आधारित है कि अनेक बाह्य सांविधानिक कारणों से उनका सत्ताधिकार काफी कम हो चुका है और वे अब उसमें अधिक कमी होने देने के पक्ष में नहीं हैं।

लोकसेवा के सदस्यों पर नियंत्रण

अखिल भारतीय सेवाओं की दृष्टि से केन्द्र-राज्य सम्बन्धों को तनावपूर्ण बनाने वाला प्रधान मुद्दा अखिल भारतीय लोक सेवाओं पर नियंत्रण का प्रश्न है। वर्तमान समय में राज्य सेवा में रहते हुए भी इनकी सेवा शर्तें और पदोन्नति आदि का नियमन केन्द्र द्वारा होता है। अतः राज्य नेतृत्व के प्रति उत्तरदायी होने के बजाय अखिल भारतीय सेवा के अधिकारी केन्द्रीय नेतृत्व के प्रति उत्तरदायी होते हैं। केन्द्रीय नियंत्रण में होने के कारण ये अधिकारी राज्य सरकारों के आदेशों का उल्लंघन ही नहीं वरन् उनके विरुद्ध कार्य भी कर सकते हैं और राज्य शासन के संचालन में गतिरोध उत्पन्न कर सकते हैं। संघात्मक शासन की सफलता के लिए यह आवश्यक है कि अखिल भारतीय सेवाओं के सदस्यों पर केन्द्रीय नियंत्रण कम किया जाये और राज्यों के नियंत्रण में वृद्धि की जाये। इस सम्बन्ध में निम्नलिखित दो सुझाव दिये जा सकते हैं : प्रथम, केन्द्र द्वारा नयी अखिल भारतीय सेवाओं की स्थापना के लिए तभी कदम उठाया जाना चाहिए जबकि राज्य विधान सभायें उनकी स्थापना के सम्बन्ध में

प्रस्ताव पारित कर अपनी इच्छा प्रकट करें। दूसरे शब्दों में यह कार्य राज्य सभा से राज्य विधानसभाओं को हस्तांतरित कर दिया जाना चाहिए और उनकी आवाज ही इस सम्बन्ध में निर्णायक मानी जानी चाहिए। द्वितीय, इस बात की व्यवस्था की जानी चाहिए कि एक राज्य विशेष में कार्यरत अखिल भारतीय लोकसेवा के सदस्यों के कार्य के मूल्यांकन के सम्बन्ध में उस राज्य की सरकार की राय को ही अन्तिम माना जाये और उसी के आधार पर उनकी भविष्य की पदोन्नति या अवनति के सम्बन्ध में केन्द्र द्वारा निर्णय किया जाये। इससे राजनीतिक वैधता या औचित्य का प्रादुर्भाव होगा। श्रीराम माहेश्वरी के अनुसार इस समस्या का श्रेष्ठ समाधान तो यही होगा कि अखिल भारतीय सेवाओं के लिए आरम्भिक प्रशिक्षण एवं भर्ती सम्बन्धी कार्य तो केन्द्रीय सरकार करें और बाद में उन्हें राज्य सरकारों के पूर्ण नियंत्रण में रख दिया जाये।²¹

निष्कर्षतः बदलते राजनीतिक और आर्थिक परिप्रेक्ष्य में “उच्च प्रशासनिक लोक सेवा” के सम्बन्ध में प्रचलित धारणाओं को बदलना होगा। आज राष्ट्रीय एकता की स्थापना का सवाल उतना चुनौती-पूर्ण नहीं है जितना 1950 के आसपास था। आज आवश्यकता इस बात की है कि आर्थिक नियोजन से उत्पन्न चुनौती का सामना करने हेतु उसके अनुरूप प्रशासनीय संगठन एवं कार्यपद्धति के विकास पर ध्यान दिया जाये। भारतीय प्रशासन की रूढ़िवादी ब्रिटिश विरासत को यथावत् बनाये रखने के बजाय वैज्ञानिक परिवर्तनों के परिप्रेक्ष्य में शासनतंत्र के पुनर्गठन का चिन्तन अपरिहार्य है। संघात्मक व्यवस्था की प्रभावपूर्णता और सुदृढ़ता के लिए अखिल भारतीय सेवाओं को सिर्फ केन्द्रवाद के एक साधन के रूप में राज्य स्वायत्तता को नियंत्रित करने के उद्देश्य से ही प्रयुक्त नहीं किया जाना चाहिए जिससे राज्य स्वायत्तता पुष्ट हो सके।²² वस्तुतः राष्ट्रीय एकता और विकास के लिए शक्तिशाली केन्द्र और समृद्ध राज्यों के संघीय ढांचे का होना ही लाभकारी है।

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सेवाओं का आज तक गठन नहीं हुआ तथापि यह 1960 के दशक में विद्यमान प्रशासनिक चिन्तन की प्रवृत्ति को उजागर करता है। एस. पी. अय्यर, "दि आल इण्डिया सर्विसेज," बी. एस. माहेश्वरी, सम्पादित, सेन्टर-स्टेट रिलेशन्स इन दि सेवन्टीज (कलकत्ता: मिनर्वा, 1973), पृ. 200.

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D. B. GUPTA

Public Sector Undertakings: What Ails Them : An Overview in the Indian Context

For a mixed economy like India, we have accepted the importance of both public as well as private sector for the economic development of our country. The evolution of the public sector in India since independence has been largely due to the Industrial Policy Resolution of 1948. This resolution emphasized the responsibility of government in the matter of promoting, assisting and regulating the development of industry in the national interest. In 1956, a new Industrial Policy Resolution was passed by the parliament which set out the need for expanding the public sector, to accelerate the rate of economic growth and to speed up industrialisation. Since then, the public sector in our country has been growing continuously assuming greater and greater responsibilities in order to achieve the various plan objectives. In view of our adoption of the socialist pattern of society, the public sector has to occupy the "Commanding heights" of the economy.

Need of Time

The need for giving great emphasis on the public sector industries emerges for variety of reasons. The public sector has been considered as an instrument of delivering the means of production from private ownership and collective benefit, which is a step in the direction of a welfare society. There is also a fact that the market mechanism alone cannot perform all economic functions, public policy is needed to guide, correct and supplement it in certain respects. Problems of "externalities" give rise to market failures and require solution through the public sector. To break the grip of a vicious circle of poverty and to accelerate the pace of economic growth, a rapid rate of capital accumulation is required. The State has to play an active role in mobilising and effectively utilising the savings of the economy. To pursue high

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level of employment and price level stability and to build up social-overheads, capital goods, basic and key industries (which can generate external economics and are extremely helpful for rapid industrialisation) which require huge investments and long gestation periods for realisation of their fruits--public sector has to come into the picture in a big way. Further, for bringing out a balanced economic growth, to abolish regional disparities, for having control over critical industries, which are of strategic importance to the country, to encourage export promotion and import substitution and to provide the "critical minimum push" needed to bring the economy to a path of self-sustained growth--public public sector is expected to play a leading, effective and crucial role.

It is somewhat unfortunate that a futile and often mutually frustrating controversy persists between the advocates of the seemingly rival private and public sectors. This tends to obscure the real problems and real issues. In fact, both these sectors are necessary for an integrated development of the economy. Looking to the public sector in our country, we find it a terribly mixed bag of pioneering endeavours, impressive achievements as well as dismal failures and massive waste of resources.

Genesis and Functioning

Prior to 1947, there was virtually no public sector in India apart from the government concerns like railway, post and telegraphs, irrigation, ordnance factories, etc. But now it includes electricity generation and distribution, transport of all types, aircraft and ammunition, coal, iron ore, steel and steel products, oil exploration and refining, chemicals and fertilizers, machinery and machine tools, drugs and pharmaceuticals, textiles and other consumer goods, export and import trade, food procurement and distribution, banking, insurance, tourism development, hotels and so on. Apart from the Central Government, State and local governments have also established or taken over production or other kinds of units. The government has also taken, in its hands, the management of some private owned firms; and it has also set up units jointly with the private sector.¹

At the end of March 1979, the Government of India alone had an investment of Rs. 15,602 crores in 176 undertakings. If one were to add to these the concerns under the control of State and local governments, the number of establishments in the public sector (including

electricity boards) exceeds 600, with investment of order of Rs. 25,000 crores. The Central Government undertakings (excluding railways, post and telegraphs, other departmental undertakings and banks) alone employed 1.87 million people as at the end of March 1979. If State and local government establishments, nationalised banks, railways, etc., were added, the labour employed would be in the neighbourhood of 4.0 millions. Equally impressive numbers arise in respect of the volume of turnover, total capital employed, the size of the wage bill, or the ancillary industries effected. At the end of March 1979, the turnover was of the tune of Rs. 18,936 crores, total capital employed was of the order of Rs. 14,173 crores and there were 805 ancillary industries under the umbrella of public enterprises. Because of these and the forward and backward linkages of public sector enterprises, the level of activities in these units has a significant impact on the macro-variables of the economy. The table on next page gives a five-year profile of public enterprises.²

TABLE 1

Profile of Public Enterprises

	Unit	74-75	75-76	76-77	77-78	78-79
Number of running public enterprises	Numbers	120	121	149	155	159
Capital employed	Rs. crores	6627	8824	10887	12130	14173
Turnover	Rs. crores	10217	11688	14542	18020	18936
Gross profit before interest and tax	Rs. crores	559	668	1028	915	1076
Net profit before tax	Rs. crores	312	306	421	160	193
Net profit after tax	Rs. crores	184	129	184	-91	-32
Internal resources generated	Rs. crores	580	526	719	708	906
Return on Capital employed	%	8.4	7.6	9.4	7.5	7.6
Return on paid-up capital	%	4.9	2.9	3.5	Loss	Loss
Employment	Lakhs	14.08	15.05	15.75	16.38	18.71

An aggregate analysis of the public enterprises tends to be somewhat misleading. Generalisations about the overall performance of the public sector are not very meaningful since public sector covers a wide variety of enterprises, operating under very different sets of constraints. Of the 159 running enterprises, 88 enterprises had shown profit in their operations in 1978-79, while 69 had incurred losses, and whereas two had broken even. Total gross profit before interest and tax amounted to Rs. 1076 crores in 1978-79, but after payment of interest and taxes, this turned into a net loss of Rs. 32 crores. Of the 159 enterprises, 88 actually earned a net profit of Rs. 485 crores, but these were more than compensated by the losses of 69 enterprises which amounted to Rs. 517 crores. On the total capital employed of Rs. 14,173 crores, the gross profit and interest of Rs. 1,076 crores constituted a return of 7.6 percent. During the period between 1974-75 to 1978-79, the return on capital employed which is an index of profitability of commercial enterprises in operation had reached a maximum of 9.4 percent in 1976-77; it dropped to 7.5 percent in the next year and has not shown any recovery in 1978-79. The return on paid-up capital which was already low by any standards turned negative in the last two years. Despite an increase in sales turnover by more than 85 percent between 1974-75 to 1978-79, the gross profits ratio to sales turnover has shown only a marginal increase from 5.47 percent in 1974-75 to 5.68 percent in 1978-79.³ In the case of the loss-making units, price controls imposed by the government on output of these units despite the sharp rise in the cost of various inputs including labour, general deterioration in labour relations, powers shortages and transport bottlenecks have been partly responsible for such losses and underutilisation of their capacities. The top ten public sector enterprises, according to the cumulative investment, as on 31 March 1979, are shown in the following table.⁴

TABLE 2

Investment in Top Ten Public Sector Units

Name of the Unit	Investment (in crores)
Steel Authority of India Ltd.	2,996
Coal India Ltd.	1,377
Fertilizers Corporation of India	709
Shipping Corporation of India	700
Oil & Natural Gas Commission	637
National Fertilizers Ltd.	537
Rural Electrification Corporation Ltd.	525
Kudremukh Iron Ore Company Ltd.	565
Central Coal Fields Ltd.	484
Food Corporation of India	473
TOTAL	9,003

This amount of Rs. 9,003 crores was 58 percent of the total investment in public sector enterprises in the year 1978-79.

Probably, the most important role of the public sector in India is capital formation. During the First Plan, the share of the public sector in the total gross fixed capital formation in the country was 41 percent, but it exceeded the share of the private sector in the Second Plan as it was 51.2 percent but in the Third and Fourth Plans, the share was 47.5 percent and 41.3 percent respectively and during the Fifth Plan (1974-75 to 1976-77), the share of public sector and private was nearly fifty-fifty.⁵

Despite many criticisms against the public sector enterprises, due to inherent weaknesses of the private sector to fulfil the desired goals, the government had to come in a big way to undertake the development of basic and strategic industries, capital goods industries and even consumer goods industries. Its operations extend from basic and capital goods like steel, coal, copper, zinc and other minerals, heavy machinery on the one hand and on the other, we find drugs and chemicals, fertilizers, consumer goods like textiles, hotel services, watches, bread, etc. In copper, lead, coal, petroleum products, telephone, teleprinters, ship-building, locomotives, railway coaches industries the share of public sector is cent-percent, it was 67 percent in zinc industry, 56 percent in machine tools, 51 to 77 percent in anti-biotics, 46 percent in wagons and 45 percent in nitrogen fertilizers.⁶

Again, many of the public sector enterprises have also done much to promote India's exports. The State Trading Corporation, the Minerals & Metals Trading Corporation, the Bharat Electronic, etc., have done much for export promotion and import substitution. These have earned a good amount of foreign exchange. During 1976-77, the public sector enterprises earned Rs. 2246 crores in foreign exchange as against Rs. 1536 crores during 1975-76. During 1977-78, total foreign exchange earned by public sector enterprises was Rs. 1561 crores.⁶

Almost 65 percent of the total employment is provided in the public sector. In 1965-66, total employment provided was only 5.0 lakhs, which increased to 18.71 lakhs in 1978-79. But it is often argued by many economists that looking to the indices from many public sector enterprises for a good part of the increased employment in these units, the marginal productivity is near zero. To some extent, this argument contains the element of truth, so deliberate creation of disguised unemployment must be avoided.

Recently, the Bureau of Public Enterprises has undertaken a study on the growth and development of ancillary industries with a view to help small scale industries. This will also improve the employment situation in the economy. Ancillarisation has tremendous scope in the eighties.

Scope

Ideology as well as pragmatism play significant role in influencing the scope of public enterprises in a country, while the motivations of a particular governmental regime, and also the nature of its authority have a profound influence upon the way in which public enterprises are devised, organised and managed. Just as there are a variety of ideologies of sets of circumstances, and of motivations behind public enterprises, so also there must be, and in fact, are different kinds of targets or objectives for different kinds of enterprises, or groups of enterprises. According to the Bureau of Public Enterprises, these are required not only to give an adequate return to the nation on the investments, but also to (i) capture the commanding heights of the economy; (ii) share the burden of industrialisation; (iii) generate additional employment; (iv) promote balanced regional development of the country; and (v) develop ancillary industries, small scale industries, etc. An enterprise may be called upon to undertake an uneconomic or unprofitable project, just because it is in the general welfare of the community. This aspect makes it amply clear that profitability should not be the sole criterion of judging the performance of the public sector units.

But this does not justify the fact that even after thirty years of planning, these public sector enterprises have not attained the levels or heights as were desired from them. For instance, the expected contribution of public sector enterprises to the resources for the Third, Fourth and Fifth Five Year Plans were, respectively, Rs. 450 crores, Rs. 1280 crores and Rs. 2287 crores. However, their contributions to each of these plans fell short of expectation as shown by the actuals for these plan-periods: Rs. 373 crores in Third Plan, Rs. 801 crores in the Fourth Plan, while the comparable figures for the Fifth Plan are not available.⁷ This underachievement took place due to several different factors and will discuss later on about them. Moreover, the objective of reducing regional disparities is far from attainment; the "spread effect" of public enterprises has not been realized properly; in terms of

markets leadership, they have not achieved much. And above all, the expansion of the public sector has not imparted an element of strength or stability to government revenues. Taking all these things into account, one cannot help feeling that non-economic as well as the economic benefits have been realized inadequately and the actual performance of public enterprises leaves much to be desired. But this should not put a question mark on the existence, usefulness and relevance of the public sector as there is really no substitute for it and it has come to stay in the country. In fact, the developments which took place in the last thirty years or so could not have been realized if there were no public sector. So the important question is what are the factors and reasons behind this rather pathetic show by these public sector enterprises and how they can be tailored to serve the social purposes much better in the future. Various sets of economic, political and social factors are responsible for the miserable actual performance of the public sector enterprises. However, under the multiplicity of responsibilities thrust on these units, the major problems can be put, for convenience, under three broad heads—financial, managerial and others.

(i) **Financial Hazard** : on the basis of Krishnswamy's reasoning, from the financial angle, we must consider first the cost side. In most of the public sector enterprises, the construction periods were much larger than originally projected, which was mainly due to inadequate project preparation or unrealistic assumption about supply lags. Changes in the size or design of the projects at various stages resulted in high cost and loss in production. There have been delays in creating infrastructural facilities or social overheads which obviously enhanced transmission of delays and high cost in one unit to the other. Inadequate utilisation of capacity, inefficient inventory management, absence of adequate purchase or selling arrangements have plagued these units once they start operating. Quite a good many units operate in the capacity utilisation range of 50 to 75 percent and even below 50 percent. In 1978-79 in 62 units, capacity utilisation was over 75 percent, in 42 units 50 to 75 percent and in other 42 undertakings, it was below 50 percent. Though power shortages, industrial unrest non-availability of adequate raw materials, etc; were instrumental for this deplorable situation, still appropriate measures should be adopted to remedy the situation.

From the financial side, there is further the problem of price formation in public sector enterprises. As we knew that

generally the selling price in these units are administered rather than market-determined. Though in some spheres which are exclusively reserved for the public sector, the units also enjoy monopoly or semi-monopoly situation in the economy and, thus, they are in a position to fix high prices even without cutting these output; but keeping in mind the socialistic or welfare objectives such temptations had to be resisted. For a long period, urge to follow the "breakeven" price policy or the policy of "no profit no loss" was very strong. A minimal price policy was pursued with regard to the products of basic and key industries as unduly high prices of their products could spread cost increases over the large segment of the economy. In these cases, public enterprises have been treated as public utilities. However, as heavy public expenditure is involved in the establishment of these industries and if the process of public investment is to be maintained at a high level there units must yield sizeable returns. For further investments and reinvestments, a surplus is required; after allowing for depreciation, interest on capital employed in these enterprises, a net profit should accrue to government to increase the savings of the public sector. The conflict between the two approaches which may be termed as the "public utility approach" and "the rate of return approach" has meant, in practice, the adoption of a minimal acceptable return on capital, together with subsidisation of consumers in various ways.⁸ Such policies of preferential price discrimination may be carried on for short periods only as their continued application means relatively higher prices to the non-priority, i.e., stronger sections of the society, which will result in loss in productive capacity to be compensated from the budget. But as this is not the case, emphasis on subsidised prices for particular classes of community reduces the return on capital which has serious repercussions on the entire economy. Furthermore, public sector units are subject to all the increases in costs that might take place elsewhere in the economy but they cannot make price or output adjustments easily to cover the additional costs. This mismatch between their costs and prices can often result in loss-making decision. Again in case of scarcity, due to inappropriate arrangements, their product tend to get diverted to black market where larger gains are realized by private traders. Because of such a pricing policy, the public sector units have not been able to grow rapidly and in terms of research and technology, their achievement have been dismal. This has put greater burden on the budgets of the Central and State Governments. Further, persistent losses or under-achievement also result

in adverse effect on the morals of the management as well as the labour in public enterprises.

(ii) **Managerial Issues** : Another very serious and significant problem is related with management of public sector enterprises. It has been argued by many that public corporations are a very difficult device to work successfully, even under governments for more experienced and equipped with a much more sophisticated administrative apparatus. According to them, the proliferation of public corporations has been such that they constitute almost a heedless fourth branch of government. To make them work efficiently, it is essential that they be kept "out of politics." The problem of internal management in the public sector enterprises is, of course, more complicated than it is in the private sector. These problems arise from external as well as internal factors. Problems arising from factors external to enterprise are generally those relating to plant location, size, layout and availability of resources. Some of the enterprises have had an unhappy start mainly because there was insufficient preliminary planning in regard to these matters. To some extent, it was necessary as we lacked the necessary practical experience, but the unfortunate part is that similar mistakes continued to be made in other undertakings. Management problems internal to enterprises are of structural, procedural and supervisory types as well as with regard to personnel. Such problems are definitely not tackled properly in our country. Moreover, the greatest weakness in the organisation of government enterprises in India has been the lack of experienced persons to fill the top posts. So far, most managing directors have been found from amongst the Indian Civil/Administrative Service or from the ranks of retired officials of the Ministry of Railways/Finance who are generally given these posts due to their political influence. While these officers may be having experience of the normal administrative set-up of government, very few of them have a background of managerial experience in industry. A fundamental problem in the management of public enterprises consists in the need, on the one hand, that the management should have the capacity to exercise, the necessary initiatives in managing the enterprise with boldness and resolution, and without a constant anxiety not to displease, not to take risks and to play safe, and on the other, the equal need to answer and account adequately in terms of the purposes and objectives for which the enterprise has been established and resources committed to it, and to attain the targets. As there is no high grade system of punishment and incentives so the result is that the management personnel think it best to play safe and work only within the set

practice. The workers also find themselves in a more or less similar situation in the absence of incentives of being rewarded if they work hard and being duly punished if they show negligence to their duties. The whole system is further obscured by strong trade unions which try to get more concessions not through increasing productivity of the concern but through sheer militant pressure. Moreover, the top executives in these enterprises are generally transferable from one concern to another with the result that before the person at the helm of affairs is able to fully grasp the problems of the concern and is able to devise long term measures for solving them, he either retires or is transferred to another job. Continuous ministerial interferences and lack of clear-cut objectives have often resulted in such a nebulous and state of affairs in these concerns. There is poor manpower planning which is clearly reflected in the inadequate arrangements for training and education of workers. All these problems have given rise to the bad industrial relations and sick industries. The unsatisfactory state of industrial relations in the form of strikes, go-slow tactics, work to rule, lock-ups, etc., have serious adverse effects on the economy. In 1978-79, man-days lost amounted to a record figure of 39.1 millions. Spread of sickness in industry raises serious questions about future policy. The number of medium and large units reported as sick stood at 241 at the end of December 1976 which increased to 344 by the end of December 1978.⁹ So the intricate problem faced by public enterprises is to reconcile the demands of accountability and autonomy in management.

(ii) **Other Problems :** Besides these financial and management hazards, the other problems faced by public enterprises are of over capitalisation, overstaffing, etc. Inadequate access to long term or working capital is a common thing in public enterprises because of delays in government decisions on prices, funds allocation or licenses of various kinds. Pace of modernisation has slowed down in these units because of the continuance of obsolete and outdated methods and equipments. In most public sector enterprises, they have no declared policy, except that some departmental directives and adhoc piecemeal orders. The public sector has to keep in mind the social implications of its price policy. Keeping the objective of overall growth of the economy in mind, prices of steel, oil, fertilizers, etc. which serve as key inputs for other enterprises, cannot be fixed high; in many cases public pressures force prices of these enterprises to be kept low, which, reduces the commercial profitability of these undertakings.

Therefore, there is a plethora of problems haunting the efficient working of the public sector such as had planning, wrong and inflated inventories, political and governmental interference, inefficient management by non-professionals, rigid control of audit and finance, delay in decisions, indecision and wrong decisions, low utilisation of plant capacity, over-capitalisation, over-staffing, bad management-labour relations, low rate of production, lack of motivation, absence of accountability at top management level, defective organisational structure, lack of clear-cut objectives and absence of appropriate price policy, long gestation periods of the public sector projects, absence of efficient marketing policy, no facilities for systematic market research and proper sales forecasting, etc.

Cure

From all this discussion, it is obvious that a variety of external and internal factors are responsible for the shortcomings of the public sector enterprises. Overcoming them will require changes in policies, practices as well as attitudes. The public sector cannot effectively contribute to the realisation of a variety of social objectives if it is not economically viable. In a rapidly changing and complicated environment, the attainment and maintenance of such viability requires efficient operation which demands high management standards in the public sector. The top executives should be encouraged to experiment and innovate, for this the administrative wing and legislative wing of government should not interfere in the day-to-day management of public enterprises. In market-related operations, the chief executives should be in a position to decide objectively and act quickly; for this both the proximate and long term objectives should be clear to them and these objectives must be achievable. As public sector units are largely owned by the government, complete autonomy, in practice, can not be provided to them and government, being the shareholder, has to have the right to appoint or dispense with the managers of public enterprises. But for ensuring efficiency, the initiatives and structures for making business decision within the pattern of objectives, should vest with the management of the enterprises and the decisions relating to the broad policy parameters effecting the enterprises should vest with the government.¹⁰ The selection of personnel for top positions is very important. A choice made mainly on the criterion of political acceptability is to be deprecated; top positions to pseudoprofessionals do great harm in the efficient working of public enterprises. What is needed is the putting into practice the principle of professionalising the management in public

enterprises. Professionally competent management of the resources requires building up, with training and experience, a scientific technique of managing the affairs. Managerial cadres should be intimately associated and involved in the formulation of the objectives and targets of the particular enterprise, from the earliest stages of planning and thought out thereafter. This will lessen the chronically sterile controversy over "autonomy", "control", "accountability", "ultimate responsibility" and so on, and a more logical, more scientific system of communication and control, a more sensible balance between managerial discretion and governmental control and a better coordinated joint effort towards the common objective of national economic development will emerge in the economy. But due to autonomy and freedom combined with adequate control will depend to a large extent upon the controlling authorities themselves and the quality of their knowledge and skill. Incentives of high salaries should be given to attract able persons to the public sector who generally prefer to go to the private sector inside the country or abroad as they are paid handsomely there.

In respect of industrial disputes, proper actions should be taken to establish peaceful and growth conducive environment. Social attitudes should be developed to promote better work conditions. A clear-cut machinery and procedures for settlement of disputes and for periodic wage or dearness allowance adjustments are required for this purpose. Efforts to minimise work stoppages through mediation, conciliation, adjudication, etc., should be made by also including labour representative in the management.

Moreover, the maximum utilisation of capacity should be done so that production can increase, per unit cost can decline and profitability of public sector concerns can be increased. In this direction, various steps like variation in product mix, an increase in the facilities of balancing equipments; modernisation, appointment of technical advisors, export promotion, development of ancillary industries; facilitating the imports of raw materials, machinery and machine tools; encouragement to research and development; efficient training, etc., may prove very helpful.

An overall improvement in the systems of plan formulation and implementation is necessary to enable the public sector to fulfil its objectives. The setting of detailed targets and detailed allocation has to be substituted by the identification of common policies to be adopted by State Governments and central ministries. Furthermore,

the pricing of public enterprise products should take notice of inflationary or distributive consequences. Differential pricing of public enterprise services and products may sometimes be necessary for introducing progressiveness in the relative burden on the user but this should not be carried too far as this could lead to a reduction in the total revenue of public enterprises and malpractices in marketing. Though high prices of basic goods are not feasible from welfare angle, but the prices of these goods must not also be kept so low as to inflict burden of financing each losses on the budget or the banking system. The objectives of covering not only the "full costs" but also providing a net return on investments in public enterprises can be realised only if the distributive role assigned to them is a modest one. Now-a-days, it has been emphasised that prices should be determined in such a fashion that these enterprises can get 12 percent return after tax on net worth. The administered prices of coal, steel, fertilizers, petroleum products have been revised upwards to minimise losses.

Frequent mismatches between costs and administered prices have to be avoided. Infra-structural bottlenecks like, power shortages, market deficiencies, etc., should be removed as quickly as possible and better control system of production and material management should be introduced. A broad-based improvement in infra-structure is a pre-condition for achieving an industrial revival and removing the depressing effect of lower agricultural production upon agro-based industries.

If the aforesaid suggestions are taken care of and implemented as early as possible, then the drawbacks in the working of the public sector enterprises can be removed. The sooner we strive to remedy them, the better are the chances of attaining high rate of growth with distributive justice. There is much room still for paying greater attention to public enterprises in our country. This hope and confidence shown by the government in public sector undertakings is amply demonstrated in the draft of the Sixth Five Year Plan which provides for a public sector outlay of Rs. 97,500 crores. In real terms, this outlay is 80 percent higher than the public sector outlay during the Fifth Plan. We must also hope that the Fazal Committee, set up by the new government, after its come back to power, in 1980 which has done a comprehensive unit by unit study of the crucial problems facing public sector enterprises and is expected to give its report

very soon, will be of immense help to plan and its report will go a long way in solving the shortcomings of public sector undertakings. The development of the public sector as an instrument of economic development, with a suitable tailored policy framework which caters our broader objectives, is the need of the hour as we move to face the challenges of the eighties.

NOTES

1. K. S. Krishnaswamy, "Public Sector Undertakings," *Economic Times*, 8 January 1981.
2. *Economic Survey*, Government of India, 1979-80.
3. *Ibid.*
4. *The Economic Times*, 21 March 1980.
5. Ruddar Datt and K. P. M. Sundharam, *Indian Economy*, (New Delhi, 1980), p. 146.
6. *Ibid*, p. 148.
7. Krishnaswamy, *op. cit.*
8. *Ibid.*
9. *Economic Survey*, 1979-80.
10. Krishnaswamy, *op. cit.*

मृदुला बावेल

जयपुर का मास्टर प्लान

गुलाबी शहर के नाम से विख्यात जयपुर नगर उन इनगिने सुनियोजित नगरों में से एक है जो अपनी परम्परागत वास्तु एवं स्थापत्य कला, सुनगर नियोजन, सुव्यवस्थित सड़कों, बाग-बगीचों एवं भव्य प्रासादों के लिए भारत में ही नहीं बरन् विदेशों में भी प्रसिद्ध है।

महाराजा जयसिंह द्वितीय ने 18 नवम्बर 1727 को नई राजधानी की आधार-शिला रखी। महाराजा जयसिंह ने जयपुर नगर का निर्माण नगर नियोजन के समकालीन सिद्धान्तों एवं शिल्पशास्त्र के नियमानुसार कराया। नगर के सभी भवनों पर गुलाबी रंग की एकरूपता ने नगर की सुन्दरता में वृद्धि की है। महाराजा जयसिंह के बाद के सभी शासकों ने भी समान सिद्धान्तों का अनुसरण करते हुए जयपुर नगर को सुन्दर बनाने में अपना महत्वपूर्ण योगदान दिया।

इस शताब्दी के आरम्भ तक जयपुर नगर का विकास चहार-दीवारी तक ही सीमित था परन्तु रेल्वे लाइन के आने तथा अन्य आर्थिक गतिविधियों के कारण नगर का विस्तार परकोटे के बाहरी क्षेत्रों में भी किया गया। शहर के पूर्व तथा उत्तर में पर्वत मालाओं के कारण नगर का विकास केवल दक्षिण तथा दक्षिण-पश्चिम दिशा में ही सम्भव हो सका। नगर की निरन्तर बढ़ती हुई जनसंख्या के समुचित आवास के लिए 1940 में पाँच नई आवासीय योजनाओं—राम निवास बाग के दक्षिण में फतह टीबा क्षेत्र, अशोक नगर, न्यू-कालोनी व बनीपार्क जिन्हें क्रमशः ए, बी, सी, डी, और ई योजनाओं से भी जाना जाता है—को कार्यान्वित किया गया। साथ ही सिविल लाइन्स क्षेत्र का विकास भी राजकीय अधिकारियों के आवास के लिए किया गया। इन विकास कार्यों के परिणामस्वरूप जयपुर नगर का विस्तार क्षेत्र जो प्रारम्भ में केवल 2,000 एकड़ था, सन् 1971 में बढ़

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कर 14,000 एकड़ से भी अधिक हो गया है। आज शहर की नगरीय सीमा में 46,000 एकड़ भूमि है।

देश के विभाजन के बाद बड़ी संख्या में पाकिस्तान से आये शरणार्थियों व जयपुर को राजस्थान राज्य की राजधानी घोषित किए जाने के परिणामस्वरूप शहर की विभिन्न गतिविधियों में वृद्धि हुई। साथ ही बापूनगर व गांधीनगर, दक्षिण में विश्वविद्यालय एवं उत्तर-पश्चिम में भोटवाड़ा औद्योगिक क्षेत्र आवासीय क्षेत्रों की स्थापना की गई।

जयपुर नगर के अप्रत्याशित विकास के फलस्वरूप यथायात अवसृद्धता, आवासीय भवनों की कमी, स्वास्थ्य एवं अन्य जनोपयोगी सेवाओं का अभाव आदि अनेक जटिल समस्याएं उभर कर हमारे सम्मुख आयी हैं। वर्तमान समय में हो रहे भवन निर्माण कार्यों में परम्परागत वास्तुकला एवं स्थापत्य कला की उपेक्षा व अवहेलना के कारण नगर की सुन्दरता, एकरूपता एवं आकर्षण खतरे में पड़ गया है।

उपरोक्त समस्याओं (कठिनाइयों) को दूर करने तथा नगर के सुनियोजित विकास विकास हेतु यह आवश्यक समझा गया कि नगर नियोजन के स्वीकृत सिद्धान्तों को दृष्टि में रखते हुए जयपुर के लिए एक दीर्घकालीन विस्तृत योजना अथवा मास्टर प्लान तैयार किया जावे। इस तथ्य को ध्यान में रखते हुए राज्य सरकार राजस्थान नगर विकास अधिनियम 1959 की धारा 3 के अन्तर्गत जयपुर एवं इसके आसपास के 125 गाँव (संशोधित 131 गाँवों) को जयपुर का नगरीय क्षेत्र घोषित किया, साथ ही राज्य के मुख्य नगर नियोजक एवं शारीरिक एवं वास्तुविधिक सलाहकार को जयपुर शहर का मास्टर-प्लान बनाने हेतु निर्देश दिये गए। इस अधिनियम के अन्तर्गत राज्य सरकार ने राज्य में नगर नियोजन मन्त्री की अध्यक्षता में एक परामर्शदात्री समिति का गठन किया गया, जिसमें नगर के विकास से सम्बन्धित संगठनों के अधिकारियों व पदाधिकारियों सहित करीब 20 सदस्य थे। नगर नियोजन संगठन के सहयोग से इस सम्बन्ध में किये गये सभी संवर्धनों एवं अध्ययन कार्यों के अनुरूप मास्टर-प्लान का प्रारूप तैयार किया गया है।

मास्टर प्लान का मुख्य उद्देश्य

जयपुर मास्टर-प्लान का मुख्य उद्देश्य एक ऐसा सुगठित एवं संतुलित विकास है जो नगर की वर्तमान समस्याओं का उचित समाधान तथा आगामी 20 वर्षों में संतुलित विकास में उपयोगी सिद्ध हो सके। मास्टर-प्लान सन् 1997 तक नगर में होने वाले सभी सरकारी एवं गैर सरकारी विकास योजनाओं व निमाण कार्यों के लिये पथ-प्रदर्शन करेगा।

नियोजन नीतियां

राजस्थान राज्य की राजधानी होने के कारण यह माना गया है कि जयपुर भविष्य में भी प्रशासन का मुख्य केन्द्र और प्रमुख व्यावसायिक वितरण केन्द्र बना रहेगा। राज्य का सबसे

बड़ा नगर होने के कारण यह नगर राज्य की औद्योगिक और अन्य सम्बद्ध आर्थिक गति-विधियों का भी केन्द्र रहेगा ।

जयपुर नगर देश का प्रमुख पर्यटक केन्द्र होने के कारण इसकी समस्त विकास योजनाओं में पर्यटन के योगदान की महत्वपूर्ण भूमिका रहेगी ।

नियोजन के सिद्धान्त

सभी सरकारी संस्थान संगठित क्षेत्रों में होने चाहिये तथा इन क्षेत्रों के पास ही आवास की समुचित व्यवस्था का होना भी अनिवार्य है । साथ ही, सभी सरकारी संस्थान नगर की प्रमुख सड़कों द्वारा जुड़े होने चाहिए ।

विभिन्न व्यावसायिक केन्द्रों का विकेन्द्रीकरण व विकास समय की वृत्त तथा कार्य की उपयोगिता के आधार पर होना आवश्यक है ।

औद्योगिक क्षेत्रों की स्थिति उनकी आवश्यकताओं को ध्यान में रखते हुए निर्धारित की जानी चाहिये ।

पर्यटन के समुचित विकास के लिये यातायात, खाने व ठहरने आदि की समुचित व्यवस्था की जानी चाहिये । जयपुर शहर की चहार-दीवारी में होने वाले सभी विकास कार्यों में परम्परागत वास्तुकला और स्थापत्य कला के संरक्षण पर विशेष ध्यान दिया जाना चाहिए ।

आवासीय क्षेत्रों में विद्यमान सघनता की विषमताओं को दूर कर उपयुक्त आवासीय क्षेत्रों को अवांछनीय उपयोगों से सुरक्षित व संरक्षित किया जाना चाहिए ।

शहर में यातायात व्यवस्था सुनियोजित होनी चाहिये ताकि सभी प्रकार के मार्गों को समान रूप से उपयोग में लाया जा सके । भू-उपयोग तथा यातायात योजनाएँ एक दूसरे की परिपूरक होनी चाहिए ।

जयपुर नगर के बाहरी क्षेत्रों में होने वाले अव्यवस्थित विकास को रोकने के लिये प्रस्तावित नगरीय क्षेत्र के चारों ओर परिधि-नियन्त्रण क्षेत्र का प्रावधान किया जाना भी आवश्यक है ।

सम्पूर्ण नगरीय क्षेत्रों को कुछ ऐसे योजना क्षेत्रों में विभाजित किया जाना चाहिए, जो व्यावसायिक, आवासीय, शिक्षण व आमोद-प्रमोद की सुविधाओं की दृष्टि से आत्मनिर्भर हो ।

जनसंख्या

शहर के किसी भी विकास कार्यक्रम के लिए वहां के नागरिकों के विभिन्न पहलुओं की विस्तृत एवं पूर्ण जानकारी होना आवश्यक है।

सन् 1951 में जयपुर शहर की जनसंख्या 2.9 लाख थी, जो सन् 1971 में बढ़ कर 6.13 लाख हो गई अर्थात् विगत 20 वर्षों की अवधि में शहर की जनसंख्या में दुगुनी से अधिक वृद्धि हुई है। सन् 1991 तक जयपुर शहर की जनसंख्या लगभग 12.5 लाख हो जाने का अनुमान है।

अर्थ व्यवस्था

नगर की अनुमानित जनसंख्या का विभिन्न व्यवसायों व आर्थिक कार्यक्रमों में समानुपातिक वितरण आवश्यक है, ताकि विभिन्न विकास कार्यों के लिए आवश्यक भूमि निर्धारण हो सके। नगर की व्यावसायिक एवं व्यापारिक गति-विधियों में वृद्धि के साथ-साथ औद्योगिक क्षेत्र में भी व्यापक प्रगति की अच्छी सम्भावनाएं हैं। अतः आने वाले वर्षों में भी जयपुर का राजस्थान राज्य में प्रमुख प्रशासनिक एवं व्यावसायिक केन्द्र बने रहना प्रायः निश्चित है।

शहरी क्षेत्र-सीमा

विभिन्न गतिविधियों के विस्तृत अध्ययन के आधार पर तैयार मापदण्डों द्वारा विभिन्न उपयोगों हेतु—जैसे, राजकीय कार्यालयों, व्यावसायिक व वाणिज्यिक, औद्योगिक, आवासीय, सामुदायिक सुविधाओं, जनोपयोगी आवश्यकताओं एवं यातायात सम्बन्धी कार्यों हेतु समुचित भूमि का निर्धारण किया गया है। सन् 1991 तक जयपुर नगर का विकसित क्षेत्र अनुमानतः 30,000 एकड़ हो जाएगा जो कि वर्ष 1969-70 का तिगुना है। जलाशयों तथा राजकीय सुरक्षित भूमि का लगभग 8,000 एकड़ और मिलाने से सम्पूर्ण शहरी क्षेत्र 38,000 एकड़ के लगभग होगा।

योजना क्षेत्र

सम्पूर्ण प्रस्तावित शहरी क्षेत्र को उसकी वर्तमान स्थिति के अध्ययन तथा विभिन्न आर्थिक गतिविधियों के लिये अनुमानित स्थल तथा उनकी भौगोलिक एवं प्राकृतिक स्थिति के आधार पर आठ योजना क्षेत्रों में विभाजित किया गया है। ये सभी योजना-क्षेत्र व्यवसाय, आवास, क्रय-विक्रय और आमोद-प्रमोद की सुविधाओं की दृष्टि से आत्मनिर्भर होंगे। प्रस्तावित शहरी सीमा तथा अधिसूचित शहरी सीमा के बीच के क्षेत्र को हरित पट्टी क्षेत्र का नाम दिया गया है। यह पट्टी क्षेत्र लगभग 58,000 एकड़ का होगा। आठ योजना क्षेत्रों में से प्रथम चार क्षेत्र वर्तमान शहरी क्षेत्र में आते हैं जबकि अंतिम चार प्रस्तावित शहरी क्षेत्र में। इन योजना क्षेत्रों का विवरण निम्न प्रकार है:

चहार दीवारी क्षेत्र	3,850 एकड़ अनुमानतः
बनी पार्क क्षेत्र	2,700 ,, ,,
अशोक नगर-तिलक नगर क्षेत्र	3,300 ,, ,,
गांधीनगर क्षेत्र	3,050 ,, ,,
भालाना क्षेत्र	5,600 ,, ,,
सांगानेर क्षेत्र	5,250 ,, ,,
सिविल लाइन क्षेत्र	8,180 ,, ,,
भोटवाड़ा	6,470 ,, ,,
शहरी क्षेत्र	38,400 ,, ,,
हरी पट्टी क्षेत्र	57,900 ,, ,,
अधिसूचित शहरी क्षेत्र	96,300 ,, ,,

सरकारी कार्यालय

सचिवालय क्षेत्र का भगवानदास रोड पर या दक्षिण की ओर विस्तार किया जाएगा। इसी सड़क पर दक्षिण छोर पर राज्य विधान-सभा हेतु नये-भवन के लिए स्थान का प्रावधान भी रखा गया है। जिलाधीश कार्यालय क्षेत्र को भी विस्तृत करने की योजना है। टौक रोड, तथा प्रस्तावित रिंग रोड पर नए उप नगर केन्द्र में भी एक नये कार्यालय क्षेत्र की व्यवस्था है।

पश्चिम में छावनी के विस्तार के लिये पर्याप्त भूमि रखी गयी है। नयी पुलिस लाइन के विस्तार के लिये भी भूमि की व्यवस्था की गई है।

वाणिज्य क्षेत्र

व्यापार एवं वाणिज्य के क्षेत्र में जयपुर सदा से ही अग्रणी रहा है। व्यावसायिक गति-विधियों के युक्तिसंगत वितरण एवं लोगों को नित्योपयोगी वस्तुओं के लिये मुख्य बाजारों में जाने की कठिनाई को दूर करने के उद्देश्य से विभिन्न स्तरों पर बाजारों तथा व्यावसायिक केन्द्रों की स्थापना की गई है। थोक व्यापार, मालगोदाम एवं भंडार सम्बन्धी अन्य विशेष

बाजारों की व्यवस्था भी की गई है। परकोटे में स्थित मुख्य व्यावसायिक क्षेत्र के विस्तार की क्षीण सम्भावनाओं के कारण परकोटे के बाहर अनेक व्यापारिक केन्द्रों के विकास की योजनाएं बनायी गई हैं, जिनमें सांगानेरी गेट व्यावसायिक केन्द्र, कालवाड़ बिक्री केन्द्र, सूरजपोल अनाज मण्डी व आगरा रोड पर ट्रक स्टैण्ड योजना मुख्य है। अजमेरी गेट के पश्चिम तथा सांगानेरी गेट के पूर्व की ओर नेहरू बाजार तथा वापू बाजार के विस्तार के रूप में सुनियोजित खुदरा बिक्री केन्द्र व दुकानें बनाने का प्रावधान रखा गया है।

दक्षिण में गोपालपुरा ग्राम के निकट एक नया व्यावसायिक नगर उपकेन्द्र विकसित करने का प्रस्ताव है जो कि नगर के दक्षिण तथा दक्षिण-पश्चिम क्षेत्रों में रहने वाले करीब पांच लाख व्यक्तियों की प्रमुख आवश्यकताओं को पूरा करेगा। उसमें राजकीय कार्यालयों का भी समुचित प्रावधान है।

प्रत्येक योजना क्षेत्र में एक क्षेत्रीय व्यावसायिक केन्द्र होगा, जिसमें व्यावसायिक क्रियाओं की प्रमुखता होगी। इन केन्द्रों में खुदरा दुकान, व्यावसायिक कार्यालय, होटल, सिनेमा, डाक व तार घर, अग्निशमन केन्द्र तथा अन्य सभी प्रकार की नागरिक सुविधाएं उपलब्ध होगी।

इन व्यावसायिक केन्द्रों के अतिरिक्त प्रत्येक 15 से 20 हजार की आबादी वाले आवासीय योजना क्षेत्र में कई स्थानीय विक्रय केन्द्रों की स्थापना होगी। अतः प्रत्येक योजना क्षेत्र में अनेक स्थानीय विक्रय केन्द्र होंगे। इन केन्द्रों की स्थिति इस प्रकार होगी कि आवासीय योजना क्षेत्र के किसी भी भाग से 10 से 15 मिनट में पैदल चलकर पहुंचा जा सके। इसके अतिरिक्त प्रत्येक 4 से 5 हजार जनसंख्या वाले आवासीय योजना इकाई क्षेत्र में नित्योपयोगी आवश्यकताओं की पूर्ति के लिए 6 से 10 सामान्य सुविधा वाली दुकानों का प्रावधान भी रखा गया है। अतः प्रत्येक आवासीय योजना क्षेत्र में 3 से 4 योजना इकाइयां होगी।

थोक व्यापार व विशेष बाजारों के लिए उचित स्थानों का चुनाव, भारी वाहनों के आवागमन व भारी मात्रा में माल के इधर-उधर लाने व ले जाने की कठिनाइयों को ध्यान में रखकर किया गया है। अनाज एवं अन्य खाद्यान्नों के थोक व्यापार को केन्द्रीय व्यावसायिक क्षेत्र से हटाकर परकोटे के बाहर के क्षेत्रों में ले जाने की योजना है। वर्तमान चांदपोल अनाज मण्डी के साथ-साथ नगर के थोक व्यापार के लिए परकोटे के बाहर सूरजपोल के पास एक ऐसी ही मण्डी प्रस्तावित है। खाद्यान्नों के छोटे थोक व्यापार को नये व्यावसायिक उपनगर केन्द्र व भोटवाड़ा क्षेत्रीय व्यावसायिक केन्द्र में स्थापित करने की व्यवस्था है। फल व सब्जी मण्डियों के लिए घाटगेट के पूर्व व्यावसायिक उपनगर केन्द्र, जवाहरलाल नेहरू मार्ग व भोटवाड़ा क्षेत्रीय व्यावसायिक केन्द्र में उचित स्थान दिया गया है। भवन-निर्माण सामग्री के लिए आगरा रोड, औद्योगिक क्षेत्र के दक्षिण एवं गांधी नगर रेलवे स्टेशन के पास में भूमि प्रस्तावित की गयी है जिनमें लोहे व इस्पात के सामान तथा लकड़ी व कोयले के भण्डारों के हेतु समुचित

स्थान निर्धारित किया गया है। भण्डार-ग्रहों व गोदामों के विकास सम्बन्धी सुविधा के लिए भोटवाड़ा औद्योगिक क्षेत्र, जयपुर दक्षिण रेल्वे स्टेशन, गांधी नगर रेल्वे स्टेशन व सांगानेर औद्योगिक क्षेत्रों में उचित स्थानों का प्रावधान रखा गया है।

औद्योगिक विकास को प्रोत्साहन देने के लिए आवश्यक है कि शहर के समस्त औद्योगिक क्षेत्र संगठित एवं सुनियोजित स्थानों पर हों। वर्तमान औद्योगिक क्षेत्रों में मुख्यतः रेल्वे स्टेशन के पास, भोटवाड़ा, जयपुर दक्षिण रेल्वे स्टेशन के समीप के क्षेत्र व गांधी नगर औद्योगिक क्षेत्रों को और अधिक विकसित किये जाने की योजना है। सांगानेर के उत्तर में एक बड़े औद्योगिक क्षेत्र को विकसित करने का भी प्रावधान रखा गया है।

शहर के उत्तर पूर्व में स्थित पर्वतीय ढलानों पर चल रही पत्थरों की खुदाई के कारण यहां की सुन्दरता का दिनों-दिन ह्रास हो रहा है। अतः प्राकृतिक सुन्दरता के संरक्षण के लिए पत्थरों की खुदाई की गतिविधि को नियन्त्रित किया जाना आवश्यक है। अतः पत्थरों की खुदाई का काम पूर्वी ढलानों की ओर शुरू किये जाने का सुझाव दिया गया है और पश्चिम की ओर बन्द किये जाने का प्रस्ताव रखा गया है ताकि शहर में भवन-सामग्री भी उपलब्ध होती रहे और शहर की सुन्दरता भी बनी रहे।

उद्योग

भारी उद्योगों के लिए अतिरिक्त भूमि प्राप्त करने हेतु उत्तर में स्थित भोटवाड़ा तथा विश्वकर्मा औद्योगिक क्षेत्रों को जोड़ दिया गया है। दक्षिण में सांगानेर के पास दूसरे औद्योगिक क्षेत्र का विकास किया जावेगा। लघु और हल्के उद्योगों को गांधी नगर और बाईस गोदाम रेल्वे स्टेशन के पास स्थित किया जायेगा। धुआँ, शोर और वातावरण प्रदूषण उत्पन्न करने वाले विशिष्ट उद्योगों को भालाना सड़क पर मालवीय रीजनल इंजीनियरिंग कॉलेज के पूर्व में स्थित किया जायेगा। इससे नगर के विभिन्न भागों में औद्योगिक रोजगार केन्द्रों का समान वितरण हो सकेगा।

पर्यटन

जयपुर में पर्यटकों के प्रोत्साहन के लिए नगर की सुन्दरता व एकरूपता बनाये रखना आवश्यक है। वर्तमान में हो रहे निर्माण कार्यों में परम्परागत वास्तु कला, स्थापत्य कला, नगर योजना, रंग की एकरूपता की उपेक्षा की गई है जिससे जयपुर की सुन्दरता व एकरूपता के लिए खतरा उत्पन्न हो गया है। नगर की प्राचीन कला को बनाये रखने के लिए भवन-निर्माण अधिनियम व रंगों की एकरूपता सम्बन्धी नियमों का दृढ़तापूर्वक पालन किया जाना अति आवश्यक है। साथ ही सड़क के दोनों ओर की पटरियों पर अवैध निर्माण कार्यों व अवांछित उपयोग को रोका जाना आवश्यक है तथा शहर की इमारतों

व चहार दीवारी का विज्ञापनों हेतु प्रयोग भी वर्जित होना चाहिए। मुख्य बाजारों से थड़ियों को हटाना, परकोटे के सभी मुख्य द्वारों के पास की गन्दगी को दूर कर उन्हें नये ढंग से संवारा जाना उपयुक्त होगा। शहर की सभी चौपड़ों, मुख्य सड़कों व गलियों चौराहों का उचित सुधार, सड़कों की पटरियों का पुनर्निर्माण आदि कार्यों एवं प्रकाश की उपयुक्त व्यवस्था द्वारा शहर की सुन्दरता को ओर भी बढ़ाया जा सकता है।

विभिन्न पर्यटन सुविधाओं हेतु आमेर रोड व जल महल के सामने की भूमि को विकसित किये जाने का सुभाव है, जिसमें एक बड़े होटल, पर्यटन विश्राम गृहों, अवकाश कुटीरों (हॉली डे काटेज) तथा अन्य पर्यटन सुविधाओं की व्यवस्था है। इसके अतिरिक्त चार बड़े होटलों के निर्माण का प्रस्ताव भी है। क्षेत्रीय व्यावसायिक केन्द्रों तथा व्यावसायिक नगर उपकेन्द्र में भी विभिन्न प्रकार के होटलों का प्रावधान है।

आगरा, दिल्ली आदि स्थानों से पर्यटकों के आवागमन के लिए समुचित संचार व्यवस्था का प्रबन्ध होना भी आवश्यक है। इन स्थानों से सम्बन्धित वायु-संचार सेवा एवं रेल सेवा में सुधार किया जाना अत्यावश्यक हैं। साथ ही अच्छी बस सेवा का सुभाव भी दिया गया है।

नाहरगढ़ और जयगढ़ को जोड़ने वाली सड़क का पर्यटकों के लिए पुनर्निर्माण किया जायेगा। जयपुर के दर्शनीय सौन्दर्य में वृद्धि के लिए उत्तर और पूर्व की ओर की पहाड़ियों पर भारी संख्या में वृक्ष लगाये जायेंगे।

आवासीय

आवास क्षेत्रों के स्वस्थ एवं सुव्यवस्थित विकास को ध्यान में रखते हुए मास्टर प्लान के अनुसार 30-50, 51-100, 101-150 व्यक्ति प्रति एकड़ आवासीय घनता वाले तीन प्रकार के आवासीय क्षेत्र प्रस्तावित किये गये हैं। परकोटे के अन्दर के आवास क्षेत्र को 200-300 आवासीय घनता से विकसित किये जाने का सुभाव है। नये आवासीय क्षेत्रों को अधिकांशतः 75 व्यक्ति प्रति एकड़ के अनुसार विकसित किये जाने का प्रस्ताव है।

आवासीय योजना क्षेत्रों में होने वाली सुविधाओं में मुख्यतः एक माध्यमिक स्कूल, स्थानीय क्रय-विक्रय स्थल एवं सार्वजनिक उद्यान है। दो आवासीय योजना क्षेत्रों में एक स्वास्थ्य केन्द्र रखा गया है। प्रत्येक योजना इकाई में, एक प्राथमिक स्कूल, एक बालोद्यान एवं कुछ दैनिकोपयोगी वस्तुओं की दुकानों का प्रावधान है। गृह-समूहों (150-200 परिवारों के) में स्थानीय खुले स्थानों के साथ ही नर्सरी स्कूल भी रखे जा सकेंगे।

कच्ची बस्तियां

कच्ची बस्ती क्षेत्रों के विकास व पुनर्निर्माण की ओर विशेष ध्यान दिया गया है। इनके पुनर्विस्थापना की समस्या पर भी ध्यान दिया जाना आवश्यक है। उन्हें अधिकाधिक सुविधाएं प्रदान करते हुए उनके रहन-सहन के वातावरण में सुधार किया जाना आवश्यक है।

सामुदायिक सुविधाएं

वर्तमान में जयपुर में विभिन्न सामुदायिक सुविधाओं जैसे—स्कूल, अस्पताल, स्वास्थ्य-केन्द्र, बाग-बगीचों, खेल के मैदानों आदि की स्थिति सन्तोषप्रद नहीं हैं। शहर की शैक्षणिक आवश्यकताओं के समाधान हेतु दक्षिण-पश्चिम में एक नये विश्वविद्यालय उपकेन्द्र तथा शहर के विभिन्न भागों में नये विद्यालयों के लिए भूमि का प्रावधान रखा गया है। साथ ही नये अस्पतालों के लिए भूमि तथा विभिन्न आमोद-प्रमोद के साधनों का स्थानीय सामुदायिक एवं शहरी स्तर पर प्रावधान रखा गया है।

क्षेत्रीय स्तर पर भालाना, जलमहल व गलता क्षेत्र में तीन अतिरिक्त बड़े उद्यानों का प्रावधान रखा गया है। वर्तमान पिकनिक स्थलों का उचित विकास व ऐतिहासिक स्मारकों के संरक्षण की उचित व्यवस्था करने का प्रस्ताव है। साथ ही ग्रामागढ़, भालाना, नाहरगढ़ व जयगढ़ की पहाड़ियों को वृक्षारोपण द्वारा सुन्दर बनाने का प्रस्ताव भी है।

जनोपयोगी सेवाएं

जय प्रदाय योजना, विद्युत, नालियों एवं गटर प्रणाली आदि की समुचित व्यवस्था शहरी जीवन की मूलभूत आवश्यकतायें हैं। जयपुर नगर की बढ़ती हुई आबादी के कारण इन जनोपयोगी सेवाओं पर काफी भार आ गया है। अतः जनस्वास्थ्य अभियान्त्रिकी एवं राज्य विद्युत मण्डल द्वारा व्यापक विस्तृत योजनायें बनाने की सिफारिश की गयी है।

परिवहन व्यवस्था

बढ़ती हुई जनसंख्या एवं व्यावसायिक गतिविधियों के कारण प्रमुख मार्गों का सुधार किया जाना आवश्यक है। विकसित आवासीय क्षेत्रों का कार्यस्थलों के पास न होने के फलस्वरूप यातायात सम्बन्धी अनेकानेक कठिनाइयों जैसे यातायात अवरोधता, मुख्य मार्गों पर अत्यधिक भीड़ आदि का सामना करना पड़ रहा है। नगर में ऐसे स्थलों पर जहां मुख्य सड़कें रेलवे लाइन से मिलती हैं उपरिसेतु व अधःसेतु न होने के कारण यातायात गतिरोध उत्पन्न हो जाता है।

जयपुर से होकर अन्य स्थानों पर जाने वाले भारी वाहनों का शहर की घनी आबादी वाले क्षेत्रों में प्रवेश रोकने के लिए बाह्य-उपमार्ग बनाने का भी प्रस्ताव है। आगरा रोड और अजमेर रोड को आवास में मिलाने के लिए एक रिंग रोड बनाने का प्रस्ताव है।

यातायात में आने वाली रुकावटों को दूर करने के लिए नगर के महत्वपूर्ण चौराहों एवं सड़कों का उचित ढंग से निर्माण करना आवश्यक हैं। साथ ही जहाँ सड़कों मुख्य रेल्वे लाइन से मिलती हैं वहाँ उपरिसेतु व अधोमार्ग सेतु बनाने का प्रावधान है।

अजमेर रोड पर एक केन्द्रीय बस अड्डा बनाने का सुझाव है। तीन अन्य बस अड्डे क्रमशः निर्वाण-मार्ग-व्यावसायिक केन्द्र, ट्रेक विश्राम स्थल, आगरा रोड, तथा सवाई मानसिंह स्टेडियम के पूर्व में, स्थापित किये जायेंगे। साथ ही आगरा रोड भोटवाड़ा तथा सांगानेर में बाह्य मुख्य सड़कों पर तीन ट्रक अड्डों की व्यवस्था का प्रावधान है।

वर्तमान रेल्वे स्टेशनों के विकास के लिए भी यथासम्भव पर्याप्त भूमि की भी व्यवस्था की गयी है। जयपुर को बड़ी लाइन से जोड़ने की सम्भावनाओं को देखते हुए रेल्वे लाइन के दोनों ओर पर्याप्त भूमि सुरक्षित रखने का प्रस्ताव है।

पर्यटन के प्रोत्साहन के लिए जयपुर में हवाई सेवा का विस्तार आवश्यक है जिससे कि बड़े वायुयान जयपुर में उतर सकें। हवाई अड्डे के विस्तार के लिए अतिरिक्त भूमि की व्यवस्था की गई है। हवाई अड्डे के उत्तर में विश्रामगृह के पास से हवाई अड्डे एवं शहर को जवाहर लाल नेहरू मार्ग होकर सीधा जोड़ दिया गया है ताकि हवाई-सेवा का सही उपयोग किया जा सकेगा।

परिधि नियन्त्रण क्षेत्र

प्रस्तावित शहरी क्षेत्र के चारों ओर डेढ़ से दो मील के लगभग चौड़ाई वाले क्षेत्र को सुरक्षित रखे जाने का प्रस्ताव है। इस क्षेत्र में आमेर तथा कनकपुरा-विन्दायका कस्बे भी आते हैं। विकास कार्यक्रम तीन विभिन्न चरणों में पूरे किये जायेंगे। जयपुर शहरी क्षेत्र का विकास, दो छोटे शहरी केन्द्रों का विकास, पश्चिम की ओर नये कस्बों का मुख्यतः बड़े पैमाने के भारी उद्योगों के लिए, विकास किया जायेगा। उत्तर की ओर आमेर मुख्यतः एक पर्यटन स्थल रहेगा।

उपरोक्त सभी सुझावों व प्रावधानों को सही अर्थों में कार्यान्वित करने व उनको सामान्य जनहित के लिए लाभदायक बनाने के लिये कानूनी संरक्षण व एक प्रभावशाली प्रशासनिक ढांचे का होना आवश्यक है। इस दृष्टि से एक उपयुक्त संस्था की आवश्यकता पर बल दिया गया है और एक संगठित संस्था के सृजन की सिफारिश भी की गई है जो सार्वजनिक हित और सुव्यवस्थित विकास में सहायक हो सके।

मास्टर प्लान में निर्धारित सभी उद्देश्यों की प्राप्ति के लिए जनता का पूर्ण सहयोग होना अति आवश्यक है। प्रस्तुत मास्टर प्लान जयपुर नगर की विभिन्न सुविधाओं में सुधार, सक्षम एवं स्वस्थ वातावरण प्रदान करने तथा शहर को सुन्दर व आकर्षक बनाने के उद्देश्य को ध्यान में रखकर तैयार किया गया है।

निष्कर्ष

उपरोक्त विवरण से स्पष्ट है कि जयपुर नगर का मास्टर प्लान एक विस्तृत एवं बहु-क्षेत्रीय योजना है जिसका मुख्य उद्देश्य नगर का एकीकृत विकास करना है। स्पष्ट रूप से यह नगर नियोजन के वैज्ञानिक सिद्धान्तों पर निर्भर है किन्तु इस योजना के अध्ययन से ऐसा प्रतीत होता है कि जयपुर नगर की सामाजिक परिस्थिति पर अधिक बल नहीं दिया गया है।

यह भी आवश्यक प्रतीत होता है कि समय-समय पर इस योजना का मूल्यांकन किया जाय एवं इसमें आवश्यक संशोधन किया जाये। साथ ही जल प्रदाय योजना के सम्बन्ध में आवश्यक विवरण भी इस प्रलेख में सम्मिलित किये जाने चाहिये एक अन्य पहलू जिस पर अधिक गवेषण की आवश्यकता है व मास्टर प्लान में सम्मिलित किये गये विभिन्न "शहरी ग्रामों" के सुव्यवस्थित नियोजन की विवचना भी जानी चाहिये।

अन्त में, नियोजन की सफलता पर्याप्त मात्रा में इसके निष्पादन की प्रभाविता पर ही निर्भर करती है।

Book Reviews

Ramesh K. Arora, **Perspectives in Administrative Theory** (New Delhi : Associated Publishing House, 1973), pp. 246, Rs. 70.

Public administration is a young and budding discipline which has a perpetual crisis identity. The classical, legal and formal school led by Max Weber, F. W. Taylor, Henri Fayol and others, had been badly shaken by the realities borne out of the Second World War. Herbert Simon, Riggs and other contemporary scholars launched a fierce attack with the weapons such as behavioural, functional (that includes the structural too) and the systems approaches at their command. Then the ecological school came into being and Ramesh K. Arora has vigorously campaigned for the acceptance of an ecological point of view of comparative administration in India and the book under review carries that view forward.

The editor has contributed four papers in this compilation of articles and these provided a vital continuity to the themes in the volume. The concept and politics of development administration is dealt with by Faisel Al-Salem and E. H. Valson. An insider's point of view has been provided to us by Rakesh Hooja and it is a real treat to go through his ideas on administrative development. Hooja's is a rejoinder to the main article written by Kumud Sogani. Further, Mohammad Mohabbat Khan tells how does the resistance to the forces of changes develop into a movement? Jaideep Singh and Udai Pareek have provided a vivid view of the theorica and praxia of psycho-behavioural methodology. Edwin O. Stene's piece is an original one as it tries to develop a model of the principles of organization. Wayne Penn deserves full marks for his elucidation of the subject in the framework of the policy sciences. Tej K. Jain gives us a comparative view of the models developed by Max Weber and Bennis.

The main drawback of our scholarship is that we do not begin with criticism of the main concepts, e.g., the concept of development, the concept of change and the like. Is development unilinear or multilinear? And whether the West is our ideal or that we should develop our own ideal? As regards the concept of change, the big question is whether we want to maintain equilibrium or we want a systemic change? Moreover, the concept of ecology also deserves a real critical examination. Critical appraisal on these fundamental conceptual issues are the need of the hour. In fact what we do need in this part of the hemisphere are scholars who are eager to question the fundamental of the basic concepts not only on theoretical grounds but on the basis of their empirical investigations. The works of V. Subramaniam need special mention in this regard.

Since the literature of the public administration is quite scarce in this country, Ramesh K. Arora deserves commendation for coming out with such edited works which are full of data as well as new interpretations of the existing literature. More critical studies on public administration are badly needed at this juncture and it is hoped that Arora will bring out further studies on this important subject area.

— P. C. SHASTRI

Hari Mohan Mathur, Agrarian Reform and Rural Development (Jaipur : SIPA, 1970), pp. vii, + 219, Rs. 45.

The volume under review contains the papers and proceedings of a Seminar on "Implementation of Land Reforms in Rajasthan" organized by the HCM SIPA at Jaipur on June 23-25, 1976. The significance of the dates on which the Seminar was held was clearly emphasized by Shri Ram Kishore Vyas, who delivered the valedictory address, which he noted "...the day, that is, 22 June 1976, on which the symposium is going to be concluded is also the last and concluding day of the first year of the Emergency declared by the President on 26 June 1975" but a perusal of the papers and summary of discussions should leave no one in doubt that the Seminar resulted in sober assessment of the problems involved in implementation of land reform legislation in Rajasthan and the volume is likely to be used as a reference work long after the other "gains" of the Emergency have been forgotten.

The papers in the volume can be grouped under two broad categories viz., those prepared by practising administrators (N. C. Bhatnagar, S. L. Joshi, Bala Sahai, M. L. Sureka, G. N. Haldea, C. L. Jain, R. N. Saxena and Rakesh Hooja) and by teachers and researchers drawn from academic background (viz., K. D. Trivedi, S. P. Sharma, Anter Singh and G. B. Sharma with Kanta Ahuja and M. L. Purohit being academics under government employment) with a perceptive Introduction by the Editor, Hari Mohan Mathur, who has maintained a lively presence in the academic arena even after joining the administrative ranks.

The agrarian legislation into the statute book after 1947 in India has earned plaudits from all over the world, but India-wachers have always been aware of the great lag between the legislative enactments and their field-level implementation. The book under review is likely to fill an important gap in the literature on land reforms in India by providing administrators-eye view of the conceptual, legal and organizational handicaps which make India's impressive legislative armoury rather ineffective in re-distributing ownership-rights in rural India. Rajasthan, in fact, effected a veritable revolution as far as tenancy reform is concerned within a few years of its constitution as a state of the Republic of India, but the next steps viz., imposition of ceilings and distribution of agricultural land to land-less ruralites proved to be far more intractable; even after one year of rigorous exercises taken during "one year of emergency" only 1.18 lakh acres out of a total area of 5.93 lakh acres declared surplus under the ceiling legislation had been allotted to the land-less out of which SC/ST people got only 0.46 lakh acres and, in toto, more than 20,000 persons had been benefitted from a strenuous exercise in which the entire administrative machinery of the State Government had been geared up. Further, various papers authored by senior as well as junior administrators clearly revealed the legal ambiguities and administrative aberrations which are almost built-in into an exercise which seeks to take away material assets from a group of persons in order to make them available to other people who have been living in close proximity and near-total subordination to the ex-owners. Shri S. L. Joshi's paper (pp. 49-68) in the present volume makes a fascinating reading and Shri Anter Singh's empirical finding (pp. 134-5) that among 130 allottees (out of a total of 435 in Niwai tehsil of Tonk district) after 1956 those who had less land (including land-less) were allotted less land while those who already possessed more got larger allotment should make Indian policy-makers re-think the economic utility of re-distributive policies in the rural context where the administrative

penetration is not sufficient to guarantee against intentional dilution (if not violation) of policies formally enacted at the State level.

The book under review is, therefore, doubly welcome : it is welcome as a record of what Rajasthan has achieved in terms of land reforms but it is even more welcome as a reminder that "land reforms" which fall short of "agrarian reform" may not lead to rural development; almost all contributors to the volume have harped whom the necessity of supplementing "land reforms" with other institutional measures for infrastructural development in the field of credit and other agricultural inputs plus suitable changes in the machinery for adjudication of revenue laws and this should at least alert the political elite that the rhetoric of "redistributive justice" needs to be matched by concrete institution-building for long-range infrastructural development without which "rural development" would remain a distant goal howsoever impressive might be the range of land reform legislation.

--P. C. MATHUR

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